LIBERIA.

A republic founded by black men, reared by black men, maintained by black men, and which holds out to our hope the brightest prospects.—HENRY CLAY.

BULLETIN No. 13. NOVEMBER, 1898.

ISSUED BY THE

AMERICAN COLONIZATION SOCIETY.

CONTENTS.

Z. B. ROBERTS, CHIEF JUSTICE OF LIBERIA..... ....*Frontispiece*.. 1

THE OUTLOOK IN LIBERIA.....REV. BISHOP J. C. HARTZELL, D. D.. 2

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BRITISH AFRICA..... 7

THE UNITED STATES MISSION IN LIBERIA....J. ORMOND WILSON.. 17

FRENCH COLONIZATION SOCIETIES..... 18

THE AMERICAN NEGRO IN LIBERIA.. .....O. F. COOK.. 21

KINGSLEY'S AFRICANA..... ....G. R. S... 29

LETTER FROM LIBERIA..... ....J. C. STEVENS.. 32

INAUGURAL ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT COLEMAN, OF LIBERIA.... 33

COFFEE CULTURE IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS,
WILLIAM HAYWARD.. 39

THE RISING IN SIERRA LEONE..... 45

FOREIGN EDUCATION OF AFRICANS..... 51

UNITED STATES TRADE WITH SOUTH AFRICA..... 55

THE END OF MAHDISM..... 63

ITEMS..... 69

WASHINGTON, D. C.

COLONIZATION BUILDING, 450 PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE.

Z. B. ROBERTS,

Chief Justice of Liberia.

LIBERIA.

BULLETIN NO. 13. NOVEMBER, 1898.

CHIEF JUSTICE Z. B. ROBERTS, OF LIBERIA.

Chief Justice Z. B. Roberts was born September 24, 1834, in the city of Savannah, State of Georgia, United States of America, and emigrated to Liberia (May, 1849) in the bark *Huma*, arriving at Sinoe, Liberia, June 27, 1849.

In the year 1853, as a student of theology, he entered the Baptist mission school at Grand Bassa, then managed by the Rev. John H. Cheeseman.

In the year 1858 he was ordained a minister of the gospel, and is still an elder, sometimes preaching.

He took up the study of law, and in 1860 was admitted to the bar. As an attorney he was very successful before the courts.

In the year 1863 he was elected a member of the House of Representatives. As a legislator he distinguished himself by securing the passage of several acts incorporating native tribes into the body politic. He served as a Representative four years.

In 1869 he was elected to the Senate and served in that body five years.

He also served his country as State's attorney, commissioner to native tribes of the interior, judge of the county court, and associate justice of the Supreme Court.

The resignation of the late Chief Justice C. L. Parsons creating a vacancy on the bench of the Supreme Court, he was appointed to fill the vacancy by the late President J. J. Cheeseman. As Chief Justice of the Republic of Liberia, he still serves his country.

Mr. Roberts has had many honors conferred upon him by the Government of Liberia and his fellow-citizens. President Johnson made him Knight Commander of the Order of African Redemption and decorated him with the beautiful medal of the order. Liberia College conferred upon him the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

THE OUTLOOK IN LIBERIA.

Early in 1897 I spent nearly two months in Liberia, and in February, 1898, nearly two weeks more. During each of these visits I held two annual conference sessions of the Methodist Episcopal church, and made as careful study as I could not only of the work of my own denomination, but also that of other churches. I visited nearly all the important points in the Republic from Cape Town to Cape Palmas; went up the St. Paul and Sinoe rivers and back some distance in the interior from Cape Palmas. It was my good fortune to meet the President and members of his Cabinet and other prominent gentlemen of the Republic several times, and to have conversations with them. On the steamships up and down the coast, as well as in the principal towns, I met many traders and travelers, and with them discussed the various phases of Liberia's condition and prospects.

Many of the criticisms on Liberia are unjust, and some of them I have reason to believe have their basis in that unphilanthropic, not to say un-Christian, prejudice which exists against the Negro as an individual and as a race in the minds of many white people of different nationalities. I think, also, many have expected too much of the Republic, and have not considered sufficiently the adverse conditions by which it has been surrounded and under which it has been compelled to struggle for development and growth. Many claim that there ought to have been vastly more done in opening up the interior and in bringing under practical and efficient subjugation the million natives within the borders of the Republic; but when it is remembered that after one hundred years of English rule at Sierra Leone, the adjacent territory north of Liberia, where there has been everything that efficient government under white administration could secure, and where enormous sums of money have been expended through church and missionary societies in the establishment of schools and colleges and hospitals, and where splendid naval and military stations have been maintained for at least a generation, it was only in 1896 that England felt prepared to extend a protectorate over the native tribes of the colony; and even this protectorate has proved inefficient, judging from the recent insurrection, during which over a thousand natives and several white missionaries

were murdered. In fact, today you can go into the interior among native tribes with safety much farther from Monrovia, the capital of Liberia, than you can from the great city of Sierra Leone, with its 50,000 people and its English government and equipment.

Many people who have never seen Liberia, but only read of the productiveness of its soil and the financial possibilities in the cultivation of coffee and other agricultural products, have been led to expect greater wealth than was possible without enormous outlays of labor and of money. The making of a coffee plantation in Liberia is much more expensive in labor and money and time than is the development of an orange plantation or the maintenance of a first-class farm in America. Substantial building is much more expensive, and the ravages of the white ants on all kinds of wooden structures and household fixtures are inconceivable to those who have never seen them.

Liberia has been left practically alone by its American friends for the past thirty years. The American Colonization and other societies have been doing something, but the coming on of the civil war in 1861 and the exciting events just preceding it, and the enormous Negro problem thrust upon the American people since the war, have so occupied American philanthropists, especially those interested in the Negro, that there has been little thought of Liberia. Of the emigrants who have gone from America but few have contributed financial or moral strength to the Republic. The great missionary societies of the American churches have had varying success with their work in Liberia, and the Baptists some years ago and the Presbyterians recently have withdrawn all appropriations, having concluded that their money could be used better elsewhere. The Methodist Episcopal and the Protestant Episcopal churches of America have continued their appropriations, and yet at times these appropriations have been greatly reduced, and it is an open secret that the Liberian mission field has not been satisfactory in many respects.

In the meantime a proportion of the leading men in church and state in Liberia have died, and only a few of their places have been filled by strong men—by emigrants from abroad or men raised on the soil. It is easy to say, Why has not the public-school system of Liberia been developed so as to raise men and women, and why has not the College of Liberia been crowded

with students, and why has not the Government supported a good faculty with such assistance as its friends from abroad would give, and why have not the finances of the Republic, both as to receipts from customs and the administration, been more effectively managed, and why have not roads been opened up into the interior, etc.? These same questions may be asked about other towns on the West Coast under European governments, where the facilities in money and administration were much greater. The marvel is that the Liberian Republic is as strong as it is, and has maintained its dignity and authority in the presence of the vast native populations about it as well as it has. If the philanthropic and practical interest in Liberia had not been checked by the war, but had been continued during the past thirty years, the result would no doubt have been not only a large migration of well-to-do Negroes from America, but there would have been much more satisfactory coöperation in educational and church matters with the friends of Liberia in America and the Republic itself.

I believe a new era has dawned for the Liberian Republic. President Coleman, Secretary Gibson, and other members of the administration, as well as the Senators and Representatives in the National Legislature, and other leaders of the Republic have come to fully understand that they need and must have the cooperation of some powerful and friendly nation or nations. They realize that in the scramble for the African continent they stand alone, a little Republic, surrounded by powerful nationalities. They turn naturally to America, and now that the war is past and slavery gone and the Negro population of America is rapidly rising in intelligence and character, numbering already nine millions, America ought to take a renewed, intelligent, and practical interest in Liberia. The 25,000 Americo-Liberians are either emigrants from America or their descendants, and are therefore children of the great Republic.

Next to America, Liberia turns to England. This is but natural, for England's colonization policy blesses all the people it touches. The language and literature of Liberia are the language of England and the United States.

Liberia represents organized Negro government on the African continent, and toward it the eyes of intelligent Negroes throughout the world are turned with anxious solicitude, and the least

that American philanthropists and diplomats and the American Government, through its proper channels, can do is to give a ready and cordial support to every movement which looks to the encouragement and strengthening of the Liberian Republic.

My work in the Liberian Republic as a Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church is primarily to develop schools of higher and primary grades, and to do all in my power to aid in the growth of efficient church life, both among the ministry and laity, and also in the spirit of Christian fraternity to coöperate with all other smaller organizations, and to be the friend and helper of good government and of every reformatory movement which has for its purpose good morals and public safety and intelligence.

The Methodist Episcopal Church has expended nearly four millions of dollars among the Negroes in the Southern States of America in the past thirty years in the education of Christian ministers, physicians, teachers, and tradesmen in the various avocations of life. She has sent out more than four hundred Negro physicians, several hundred ministers, and nearly fifteen thousand public school teachers, and has prepared multitudes of other colored young men and women in the various industries for the battle of life. About 300,000 Negro communicants form a part of our great world-wide constituency, which numbers as a whole nearly three millions. This means that a million Negroes of America are either communicants in or adherents to this church.

I believe that God calls upon the Negro constituency of America to make special sacrifices to help Liberia, and I am glad to say that in response to my appeals for consecrated and competent men and women to go to Liberia and other parts of Africa, I am having many responses. Professor Camphor and his wife, in charge of the College of West Africa, are specimens of many upon whose heart I trust God will place the pressure of His divine call to this African field. Rev. J. C. Sherril and his wife, pastor of our great Negro congregation at Little Rock, Arkansas, will sail for Liberia in a few weeks. Others are ready to go. My prayer is that God will make me one of the connecting links between Africa in America and Africa beyond the seas, to arouse not only sympathy but practical efforts in America for the upbuilding of Liberia.

But while good men and women from America and elsewhere are to help Liberia, the salvation of Liberia must come chiefly from within itself. Her own boys and girls must be trained in the school, in the church, in the industrial shops, in schools of commerce and law and medicine, so that they will grow up as leaders in all the public and private walks of life. Underlying this must be a deep moral sense of obligation upon the whole people, that without morality no nation can long survive.

The men and women of Liberia who are leaders in public and private life must accept the high ideals of manhood and womanhood which they desire their children to emulate.

I am planning to gradually enlarge our educational facilities as a church. This includes the development of the College of West Africa and a system of lower grade schools in our churches throughout the Republic. It is my hope in a very few years to have an institution at Monrovia, where teachers and ministers can be taught by well qualified instructors, and where those desiring and competent to pursue a college course will have a chance, and where industrial schools of various kinds will be provided for. The greatest emphasis will be placed upon a thorough primary and grammar school course. It is useless for boys and girls to think of studying the higher branches until they have mastered the more common branches of an education. Our schools at Monrovia and elsewhere will be organized on the most modern American methods as to classification and instruction. We hope also to have industrial schools at other points in the Republic. My purpose, so far as the Methodist Episcopal Church can do it, is to stand side by side with every other educational influence in the Republic, either under the State or other denominations, and coöperate for success. All will be welcomed to the benefits of our schools, without regard to age, sex, or religious belief.

Naturally Liberia is very sensitive on the question of its nationality. I am glad it is, for if it were not it would not be worth helping. What we want is such friendly and practical relations with the United States and England as will guarantee the maintenance of the Republic as it is, and open the way for whatever help the Republic needs in the way of advice and counsel, and perhaps assistance, in the organization of governmental finances and the exploration of the territory, and of capital in develop-

ing agricultural or mineral resources—all being intended, and so carried out, as to strengthen the Republic itself, and to not only maintain its dignity as a nationality among the nations of the earth, but to enlarge its capabilities and aggressive forces in its future mission as one of the important factors in the civilization of the black millions of Africa and of the world.

JOSEPH C. HARTZELL.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BRITISH AFRICA.

On the evening of Wednesday, September 7, 1898, Messrs. Elder, Dempster & Co. entertained on board the African Steamship Company's new steamer *Jebba* a large gathering of gentlemen, most of whom were connected with the West African trade. Mr. Alfred L. Jones presided at the dinner, which was served in the commodious and elegantly appointed saloon, and said:

GENTLEMEN: I think when we who are connected with West Africa look back we can feel extreme satisfaction with what we have accomplished not only for ourselves, but for the empire. There is no interest I know of, owing to its peculiar circumstances, which has been, either intentionally or otherwise, so neglected as our West African interest. We Liverpool people have pegged away, but we have always had to contend with the 1865 select committee, which has stood against us and blocked our way in West Africa. If we had had what we are entitled to we should have had a very much larger share of West Africa than we now possess, but owing to the agitation and feeling which we have kept up in Liverpool we have more in Africa generally than we would have had if we had not worked as we have done. That is an extreme satisfaction. When I look back through my experience of Africa, which has now extended over a good many years—thirty—I feel that there are some men to whom Africa is entitled to be thankful. We have Mr. Rhodes, and then we have the leader of that wonderful and tremendous triumph which all Englishmen are proud of today in the Soudan. There is no doubt that things are working to one great end in Africa, and although we have had difficulties to encounter, we have had a great deal to be thankful for. Our great military leaders and our soldiers, of whom we are so proud, have done

a great deal for us, and accomplished splendid work in civilization and commerce. Before I came down this evening I thought it would be a proper thing to send a cable to the Sirdar offering our thanks for what he has done for civilization and commerce in Africa. I propose, with your approval, to dispatch a telegram tonight to Khartoum. I have made arrangements with the Post-office authorities, and this is the telegram I propose to send: "Liverpool African trade congratulates you upon magnificent success, which will have immense beneficial effects upon civilization and commerce in Africa." I take it that it is your unanimous wish that that message should be sent. When we read of the brilliant accomplishments of our countrymen on the Upper Nile and at Khartoum we must all feel proud of being Englishmen. We are threatened with all kinds of competition, but as far as I am concerned I am satisfied to remain English. I think we will always be about where there is anything good. When we look back on our African trade we are reminded of such firms as Hatton & Cookson, Wilson & Dawson, Stuart & Douglas, Thos. Harrison & Co., and others, who were worthy pioneers in this trade, and there is no doubt that but for such men we would have had the French and the Germans in stronger force in West Africa. We have a great deal to contend against in the shape of foreign competition, with ships heavily subsidized, but it must be a satisfaction to you to see us still going on. We do not cease to exist, and I do not think we shall cease to exist. On the other hand, we have seen some other companies with large subsidies which have succumbed. Unfortunately, British traders do not give the loyal support to their own nationality that some other countries do, and for 2d. or 3d. a ton will ship by any line. Well, we cannot change the English character. Englishmen have a sort of idea that they will do what they like, and, fortunately for us, what they have liked hitherto has been what has benefited British commerce in West Africa. It may be a matter of regret that we have not more territory in West Africa, but we have now enormous tracts of country there, and what we ought to do is to make the most of what we have got. It is no use crying over the inevitable. If you look at the map of Africa you will see how things are working. You have got Mr. Rhodes working round from the east and from the Cape, and you have got the English working down

from the Soudan, and you have British merchants working from the west. With reference to our neighbors the Germans, they are not always unfriendly to the English, their system of trading being fairly in consonance with our own. In fact, some of the greatest German merchants on the coast are trading under the British flag. What you have got you have got to make the best of. You cannot change these things. You have got the Germans in the Cameroons, and you have got to make the most of it. However, in the case of the Germans, they treat us fairly, but as for the French, they have not treated their colonies as they ought to have done in the interest of the colonies themselves. .By the recent Niger convention there is no doubt that Lord Salisbury has accomplished a very great thing for us Liverpool traders, because he has got for us an understanding with the French that there are to be no differential duties. It is greatly owing to the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce that that has been brought about. I don't think Englishmen have anything to fear where they have equal privileges with foreigners, and neither do we guard in our colonies, but we even welcome the foreigner when he comes and trades under our flag. I think it is that freedom, that welcome given to foreigners, which has made our colonies contented and successful. If the French think they can make successful colonies by endeavoring to force the natives to buy what they do not want, they will be mistaken. The native should be allowed to buy what he wants and where he wants. That is the great point that has done so much to make us successful in West Africa. We have not suffered from the German or the French where we have had fair play, and I think it is only right to say here, as representing the West African trade, that we appreciate very much what Lord Salisbury has done to bring about a better understanding as regards the question of differential duties. There is no doubt of this, that we have seen a state of things in this West African trade which we could never have had if we Liverpool people had not stuck to it as we have done. You have this great Soudan victory, you have the tremendous energy of Rhodes from the east, and you have the Liverpool energy from the west. You have railways pushing on, and you have a development all round which few of us ever thought to see. I don't think it matters very much in Africa where a railway goes from, as long

as it goes into the interior. Of course, it is well to select the best place you can for the starting point, all things considered. Progress is what we want. We have been too long resting on the seacoast of Africa. I am sure that if those very worthy pioneers—men whom we all admire—men such as Macgregor Laird, who spent his life and his money to open up Africa—if these men were with us tonight, they would experience enormous pleasure on seeing what has now been accomplished. There are enormous possibilities in Africa. In the meantime we have accomplished a great deal, and I am sure if we persevere we will accomplish in West Africa more than ever we have yet done.

Dr. Edward W. Blyden, of Liberia, late agent for native affairs at Lagos, said: Mr. Chairman and gentlemen, I feel honored in being here tonight, and I am very thankful to the chairman for the kind words which he has spoken with reference to the African trade and African business generally. The natives of Africa have a thousand reasons why they ought to be grateful to Mr. Jones, and when they hear of the kind manner in which he has referred to them tonight they will feel a new thrill of gratitude toward the man who is doing so much for the development of Africa. There are few Europeans, however protracted their connection with West Africa, even among those who have been on the spot, who have a clearer and more accurate conception of the condition and possibilities of the country than Mr. Jones, and fewer still who have formed a juster estimate of the African character. It is this which has sent his name througout the West Coast of Africa in such a wonderful manner. Among the natives his name is a sort of charm, and I believe it will go on increasing in influence and power, owing to the irrepressible benevolence towards Africa and love for the African, which seems to be inextinguishable in the breast of Mr. Jones. I came up from London on Monday night to be ready to take passage in the *Nubia*, which sailed today for my home in Africa; but yesterday, when I went to the office of the company to procure my ticket, I was courteously invited to defer my departure for a fortnight, until the sailing of this splendid ship, that I might enjoy the honor of participating in the festivities tonight. I feel deeply grateful for this privilege. The occasion which brings us together naturally turns all our thoughts to that vast country

called by recent travelers the "Dark Continent." A mystery, an attractive mystery, has for ages hung over that land. The great problem in ancient times was the source of the Nile. Julius Cæsar confessed himself willing to turn from the dazzling allurements of military glory to go on a search for the fountains of the Nile if he could be assured that his quest would be successful. In modern times—that is to say, after the enterprise of the Portuguese had called attention to the western portion of the continent—the river Niger presented the most exciting problem. About one hundred years ago the people of Great Britain turned earnest attention to this problem. The source, the course, and the termination of this marvelous river—its beginning, continuation, and end—puzzled geographers of the last century. After many years of expenditure, both of treasure and human life, a British subject presented to the world a solution of two elements of the problem, namely, the course and the outlet of the great river. And the solution of this interesting problem came from an unexpected quarter. Men equipped with all the learning of the schools and endowed with the prestige of military position had tried, but tried in vain. The problem was solved by a plain, untitled Englishman of the lower middle class—the son of a Cornish shopkeeper, the valet of Commander Clapperton, R. N.—Richard Lander. Lander reached the mouth of the Niger from its upper waters in November, 1830. It was a Liverpool merchant, a Scot by birth, whose sagacity first discovered the immense openings for British trade which the achievements of Lander had secured. Macgregor Laird was his name. He called the attention of the British government to the new openings, and sought their countenance and coöperation, but they refused to have any connection with the new enterprise. Nevertheless, Laird persevered. He was made of that stuff which in every age has entered into the constitution of men who have made openings for their fellow-men in spite of difficulties and opposition. He organized a trading expedition to go up the Niger, and prepared two small vessels, named the *Quorra* and the *Alburkah*, to take out the merchandise and the *personnel*, consisting of forty-eight Europeans. He went out himself. Richard Lander, the great discoverer, also went with the expedition. This was in 1832, two years after the discovery. From a pecuniary point of view the expedition was a failure; but who shall

estimate the value of its moral results upon Africa and British commerce? British capital and pluck opened Nigeria to the world, and British capital and pluck inaugurated European commerce with that region. Macgregor Laird was the first to carry legitimate commerce up the Niger. The *Jebba*, the noble ship on which we are now regaling ourselves, is a successor in direct line of the *Quorra* and *Alburkah*. We have had as agents in this great Nigerian work, beginning in 1795, one hundred and three years ago, only six prominent actors—Mungo Park, Denham and Clapperton, Richard Lander, Macgregor Laird, Alfred Lewis Jones. These names will always stand out prominently in the history of commercial development and progress in West and Central Africa. No man can pluck the laurel of precedence from the brow of these eminent individuals. All great reforms, all movements which have had widespread influence upon human destinies, have been initiated by individuals. This is the providential order. Jealousy is foolish, unscientific, unhistorical. First comes the man, then the men, to carry out any great work. The names *Quorra* and *Alburkah* stand first among the ships in the history of West African development, and I do not wonder that none of their successors have been named after them. Those names stand alone, and must stand alone. *Spero meliora* was the appropriate and stimulating motto of Macgregor Laird's family, and he adopted it as the watchword of the enterprise he began in Africa. The prophecy implied in these unpretentious words has been more than realized—realized beyond the most sanguine dreams of Mr. Laird. The builders of the *Quorra* and the *Alburkah* could never have dreamt of the *Jebba* or the *Leopoldville*, much less of the leviathans which cross the Atlantic under the auspices of the African Steamship Company—an enterprise which, having its origin in Africa, now embraces within the scope of its influence three continents.

Now, there are two reflections which may be suggested from what I have said. The first is, that whatever commercial activity or development we now witness in West and Central Africa is due to British initiative, and that therefore the British government and people have a right to be jealous of any encroachments on their territorial or political domain in West Africa, so dearly purchased during a long series of years and with a sacrifice of men and treasure enormous beyond computation. The second

thought is that all the civilization in West Africa—everything that makes life there at all comfortable to the stranger—is due in the greatest measure to the British merchant. This idea has been often repudiated, and recently special efforts have been made to overshadow it. I am not surprised at the enthusiasm and eloquence with which Miss Kingsley takes up the cause of the merchants. She has been on the coast, and has seen for herself the work which, amid serious trials, sufferings, and deaths, they have done for the cause of progress and humanity. It was the merchants who opened the way at Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagos, the Upper Niger, and the Oil rivers for the government and the missionary. Neither the government nor the missionary would have been in those countries but for the merchants. Take away the merchant and you will have neither government nor missionary. It is said that trade follows the flag, but West Africa has presented a conspicuous exception to the rule, if there be such a rule, for there, as I have said, all the British colonies grew out of commercial enterprise. The British flag has followed British trade, and chiefly because British traders have always been loyal to their Queen and country. Wherever they have succeeded by pacific measures of trade in establishing order among the natives and confidence in British methods, thither they have invited British rule, and have never been satisfied till they got it, not only to fix and extend the conditions they had brought about, but to prevent less congenial powers from entering and interfering with their work. They have maintained—and no one will seriously deny—that the laws of England, as a whole, are more complete, better adapted to varying conditions, better fitted to meet every emergency, and more consistent with natural equity than those of any other nation; that "the best possible guarantee for human liberty," to use the language of a Jewish writer in the current number of the "Nineteenth Century," is the protection of the British government. This is what the British traders and merchants in West Africa, black and white, have felt, and they have always consistently acted up to this idea. To say, then, as has been recently stated, that British merchants instigated or connived at the rebellion of the natives against the hut tax in Sierra Leone is to furnish evidence not only of the grossest ignorance, but of a malicious and calumnious spirit. A similar charge has been brought against

the native press; but none of the maligners of that useful, but struggling, institution in the West African colonies have been able to bring chapter or verse from any of the papers to substantiate their reckless and immoral charge. The assailants of the native press are few in number, and well known for their ignobly excessive vanity. They are visibly stamped, both in their common utterances and in their general demeanor, with the image and superscription of their class, a class in whom egotism has been carried to a point at which, not only in the eyes of the natives, but in those of the foreign merchants, it has become a crime, almost a disease; and it is this quality in them which has not escaped the vigilant observation of the native press, which has not failed on occasions to proclaim the hollowness of their pretensions. *Hinc illæ lachrymæ.* If what I have said as to the labors of British merchants in West Africa be true, if they have been the fathers of West African commerce and civilization, it is not surprising that Liverpool and Manchester should have been so startled, so grieved, so indignant, when suddenly confronted with the unfortunate events witnessed in the last three years at Ashanti, Benin, and Sierra Leone. They saw the fruits of the labor of generations not only imperilled, but destroyed. They pitied the people whom they had helped up out of a stagnant barbarism to active endeavor in the world of progress. They saw that a grievous mistake had been made somewhere—somebody had blundered—because no Englishman who has lived in West Africa any time can honestly say that he has ever witnessed among the natives in the British settlements anywhere any indications of disloyalty, or that he has ever suspected any tendency on their part in that direction; and the merchants have regarded the natives with such sympathy on these sad occurrences that, as I have just intimated, they have been exposed to the censure of slanderous and thoughtless tongues; but men sometimes rise through falling, often gain by losing.

The untoward events of the last few months will not be without their salutary lessons. The government, will no doubt, as Mr. Chamberlain has promised, take the whole question of West African administration into serious consideration, and revert probably to the policy by which British prestige has been secured and maintained in West Africa, observing the principle that it is rarely safe to conclude that political or economical experi-

ments which have succeeded in one country will be equally successful in another; that what is good for India or South Africa is equally good for West Africa. For this part of the world no abrupt transitions will do any good. The old Conservative policy of the home government would be better, which the late poet laureate represented as "broadening slowly down from precedent to precedent." West Africa will recover; it is bound to recover if the agencies which this steamship represents continue their energetic and really philanthropic work. The government will always in the end follow the merchants. You are scattering broadcast seeds which are taking root, and are certain in the not remote future, as in the past, to bring forth fruit. It was with special delight that I accepted the invitation to attend this banquet, and it is with unfeigned hope and faith in the good work you are doing that I look forward to numerous successors following the *Jebba* with increasing magnificence—wonderful examples and proofs of Africa's progress and development—the fruit of the commercial spirit and irrepressible enterprise which place Liverpool in the front rank of the international cities of the globe.

Mr. James Boyle, United States consul at Liverpool, said: Mr. Chairman and gentlemen, I hardly know why the consul of the United States has been asked to respond to the toast of "The Visitors" on the occasion of the dedication of a new vessel to the African trade, except it be for the reason that the country that I have the honor to represent has little or no trade with the West Coast of Africa; but when I say little or no trade I am speaking comparatively. I may inform you that not many weeks ago a gentleman of Hebrew persuasion, who is an American citizen, called upon me at my office and told me he was going a long way—to the West of Africa—to see if the United States had any business there. That reminds me that the presence of Dr. Blyden ought to draw attention to the fact that the United States has had some interest in the West Coast of Africa. I don't know whether the Doctor—who made, to my mind, one of the most able and philosophical speeches in connection with a commercial occasion I have ever listened to—I don't know, but I will hazard the guess, that the Doctor does not come very far from the country which I have the honor to represent. I believe the Doctor comes from Liberia. You, gentlemen, may

have forgotten that the United States many years ago did take an interest in the West Coast of Africa, and that a number of citizens of the United States, the color of our distinguished fellow-visitor, did go to the West Coast and establish a colony there, and all I can say is, without knowing very much about the subject, that I am sure that colony has the good wishes not only of American citizens, but of all British subjects. Probably there never was a time, since the days of Livingstone and Stanley, when Africa was so brought to the attention of the American people as it has been within the last week or two. We have there witnessed scenes of heroism certainly not excelled anywhere by any people. If you will allow me modestly to say so, I believe that no people, not even the British people themselves, would more readily than the Americans give testimony to the magnificent bravery and heroism of the British troops in the Soudan. The thrill which went through the British heart found an echo in the heart of all true Americans, and you will permit me here to pay homage to the splendid courage, the probably almost unexampled exhibition of magnificent organization, that has been recently consummated in almost the heart of Africa by British troops and by Egyptian troops led by British officers. As to the toast of the visitors, I can only say, as one of them, that if our entertainment tonight is a sample of the fare that the passengers on the *Jebba* are going to have, we will all be willing to continue the voyage right on to the West Coast of Africa; and not only that, but we will be willing to make voyages on all the ships that our friend manages. A few days after my arrival in Liverpool I received an invitation from a gentleman whose name I had never heard before, and it so happened that immediately after receiving it I chanced to meet an American friend of mine, who had been long in Liverpool, and I told him that I had got this invitation. He said, "Who is it from?" and I said, "From a gentleman called A. L. Jones." He said, "That is the cleverest fellow in Liverpool." With reference to our entertainment tonight, I think you will all agree with me that we never went such a short voyage—I don't know how far we have gone—and enjoyed ourselves so much as we have done tonight. I am sure my fellow-visitors will join with me in wishing the most hearty success, not only to the *Jebba*, but to Mr. A. L. Jones personally, and to Messrs. Elder, Dempster & Co. as a firm.

THE UNITED STATES MISSION IN LIBERIA.

England's unrivalled power is sustained by her world-wide commerce. No island, however small or remote, escapes her eager search for trade. Her acquisition of immense colonial possessions in Africa and their development look to the enlargement of her commercial empire, and the agents she employs in her service—be they military or civil, the commander of an army, the administrator of a colony, or the consul at a port—are men of marked ability and experience in business affairs.

In the settlement of Liberia by Negroes from this country the United States Government took an active and leading part, but, however, expressly enjoined its agents "to exercise no power founded on the principle of colonization or other power than that of performing the benevolent offices" recited in their instructions. It dispatched agents who conducted the negotiations for the first purchase of territory for colonists, and subsequently sent out thousands of Negroes from the United States and superintended their settlement on this domain. While governmental responsibility for Liberia was thus disclaimed at the outset, it was nevertheless expected that the United States would at least at all times and in every practicable way manifest a friendly interest in the colony planted so largely through its agency, and incidentally would encourage and aid this enterprise to the fullest extent consistent with its disclaimer of responsibility for colonization.

We look in vain through the recent history of Liberia for any fulfillment of these expectations. The United States was the last of the civilized nations to even recognize the independence of the Black Republic, and since then, in the appointment of a minister resident and consul general to represent this Government at Monrovia, has given no evidence of practical friendship and sympathy. Every intelligent friend of Liberia knows that intimate commercial relations between the two countries would greatly subserve the best interests of Liberia and be of advantage to the United States, but, nevertheless, the appointees to this mission, as a rule, have been wholly destitute of the qualifications requisite for the discharge of the duties of a consul, so far as they relate to promoting commercial intercourse. The result,

unhappily, is now to be seen in the discontinuance of all direct commercial communication and trade between the two countries. American goods are preferred by Liberians, but are now used only to a very limited extent, and are purchased second hand in Liverpool and Hamburg. England, Germany, and France control the Liberian trade, secured through their able consuls, who are selected for their business qualifications.

The United States minister resident and consul general, the duties of whose office are chiefly consular, is appointed without reference to his fitness for the duties that legitimately belong to a consul. The office is regarded only as currency receivable in the payment of a political debt for the Negro vote. Of late years it has been used as an auxiliary to a denominational religious mission in Liberia. The minister resident and consul, general and the secretary of legation officiate in chapels and hold conferences in which the consul general acts the role of bishop and the secretary of legation that of secretary of the conference. Outside of these functions we never hear of anything of importance relating to the doings of the consul general and his secretary.

While we yield to none in our high estimate of the importance of evangelistic work in Africa, we do not consider it right that offices created by law for commercial purposes should thus be diverted. We deeply regret that vital interests of Liberia are now being sacrificed to such a policy, and we fail to see how the United States Government can properly support religious missions in Liberia at all; or, if it can do so, how it can justly select one of the several religious denominations now carrying on their work there as the exclusive recipient of this Government beneficence; and if it is to be the policy of the Government to engage in the evangelization of Africa, why it need so far distance all its private co-workers of other denominations as to pay to its missionaries salaries at the rate of $4,000, or even $1,500 per annum.

J. Ormond Wilson.

FRENCH COLONIZATION SOCIETIES.

At the same time that our occupation of Africa is being limited, it is announced that the new minister for the colonies has made a study of the benefit that can be derived from chartered companies for making our colonial empire valuable. If, as we

believe, the confidence which many people have in these companies is not well placed, our articles will render a notable service to the colonial cause—that of freeing public opinion from this fallacy.

M. Chailley-Bert has just published, under the title of "Colonization Societies under the Ancient Regime," an historical review of two hundred pages, substantial and clear, which throws new light on the subject. He has found traces of sixty-five companies founded in France in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. How many out of this number have succeeded financially? *Not one.* Not one has paid regular dividends. Not one has escaped disastrous liquidation. Very great confidence is needed in order not to have it shaken by such a statement. M. Chailley-Bert makes no application of the past to the present. The conditions are no longer the same, he says, and he notes principally the great change brought about by steam.

To us, however, it does not seem that this change has brought a more favorable situation to the chartered companies. On the contrary, formerly, with the slowness of navigation by sail and the seas infested with pirates, voyages were very infrequent, and a company had little or no opposition to meet in monopolizing a region. Today, with the regular service of packet boats, the most distant coasts have the familiarity of a great route; they belong to all the world, and consequently exclusive colonization is not yielded to any one. It is evident that no one can derive arguments from the past in favor of chartered colonization societies, and we do not see that new reasons for having faith in them have arisen in our times.

There are two kinds of colonization, *commercial* and *agricultural.* Agricultural colonization is of the highest importance. Chartered companies are clearly unsuitable to guarantee success in this kind of colonization. A company for this purpose may be very strong, with a capital of three millions. Now, what is this three millions? Only a fund necessary for planting two thousand acres of coffee trees. If for such a small result an immense extent of property is locked up in privileged hands, one shuts out the future instead of opening the road to it. Five hundred million francs have been expended to plant 240,000 acres of vines in Algeria. In no other instance have chartered companies succeeded in collecting so large a capital. The rais-

ing of an equal fund would be necessary to produce in our colonies nothing but the coffee which France now buys of foreigners. No chartered companies will furnish it.

Chartered companies are doubtless better adapted to commercial colonization. Although non-success has attended chartered companies engaged in commercial colonization in our colonial past, it is well to note that the English colonies are known to be the most prosperous, such as the celebrated East India Company, the present Royal Niger Company, and it is now announced that under pressure of public opinion the English government is going to repeal the charter of this last company, to open the Niger to commerce. It is thus seen that even in the country of the largest colonization enterprise the existence of chartered companies is borne with impatience; and if one limits himself to regions of our colonial empire, still uncultivated where chartered companies can be tried, the field is at once greatly reduced. The interior of the Soudan, the interior of the Congo, and Laos alone remain in this condition.

Hence chartered colonization companies appear to us ineffectual for agricultural colonization and possible only in some secluded districts for commercial colonization. They can be useful in some ways, but they do not know how to be in any way the instrument for making our colonial empire valuable. It is important that this truth be definitely established, for it is necessary that there should be this increase in value of our colonial empire, and if chartered companies can aid this only weakly, it is much better that they should be dispensed with at once and other means should be sought out.

Colonists have been found in France whenever they have been desired. M. Chailley-Bert recalls facts on this subject with great interest. The numerous colonization companies of old almost in every case were direct creations of the king. He would interest his friends in them; he would make his courtiers take shares and the government would issue a prospectus for them. In 1754 there were 24,000 whites in Martinique, 10,000 in Guadaloupe, and 40,000 in San Domingo—that is to say, 74,000 colonists in only three of the Antilles.

Remember that we have been forty years in Cochin-China and five in Tonquin, and that at present there are not one thousand colonists coming from France to this great and rich Indo-China.

The ancient regime accorded some favors to emigrants very different from the present state of affairs. We know that from the standpoint of military service the young man who goes to a foreign land is today better treated than the one who goes to one of our colonies, and we know that the colonies, compelled to receive freely the merchandise of the metropolis, are obliged to pay duty to introduce theirs into France. This is not all; the favors which the ancient regime promised, those which the companies promised to their colonists, were well advertised. They imagined nothing better than to cause the formation of these companies to be announced by the curate of each village, who further read the prospectus of the committees. In this way each village was informed of the colonial enterprises which were attempted, and 74,000 Frenchmen were attracted to the Antilles.

Today one could make use of an old pleasantry and conclude with the following:

Results obtained by official propaganda	000,000 00
Expenses contracted for this propaganda	000,000 00
Net result	000,000 00

If M. Trouillot changes these zeros to positive figures, the country will be indebted to him.—*Le Temps.*

THE AMERICAN NEGRO IN LIBERIA.

To the generation which has grown up since the civil war the activities of the colonization societies are scarcely known, and appeal for interest only as historical curiosities. The colonization movement of the second quarter of the century was an attempt at the peaceful destruction of slavery. The Negroes were to be gradually freed and sent back to Africa, and the removal of those who already had their liberty was begun in 1822. Colonization thus antedated abolition as a practical opponent of slavery. The Abolitionists foresaw that with the facilities of those days the colonization of Africa would require indefinite time. It was, moreover, charged that colonization was in league with slavery, since the exportation of free Negroes was not opposed in the South, but generally favored as tending to remove a disturbing

element of the population. Colonization accordingly became the special abomination of the Abolitionists, much as the advocates of high license were esteemed by the Prohibitionists; there are few more bitter rivalries than those between reformers.

The abolition of slavery proves not to have been a remedy, if, indeed, a palliative, for the deeper national complication which we call the "race question." It was the firm belief and constant assertion of the Abolitionist that the Negro needed only opportunity to become the equal of the white man, and Wendell Phillips was at least logically consistent when he expected that this progress would open the way to the legitimate amalgamation of the races and the obliteration of color lines. The event has shown, however, that progress on the part of the Negro does not tend toward amalgamation, but in the opposite direction, and the highest ideals cherished for the race in this country are in the line of admitted social isolation as the only alternative of vice.

But the race question scarcely needs to be argued; its reality is nowhere disputed, and while opinions vary as to its gravity, the prognosis is seldom encouraging. It is now generally admitted that the expectations of the Abolitionist philanthropists were entirely unreasonable and were based on ignorance of the Negro. This admission is important as increasing the pertinence of the practical question, Where has the Negro done best? No longer expecting him to forge ahead of Anglo-Saxons on the ground of their own civilization, we may be willing to consider and realize the bearing of the fact that the American Negro has acquitted himself best as a man in the neglected and sometimes despised Republic of Liberia. Early advocates of colonization, like the Abolitionists, had their dreams. They saw a Christian civilization flourishing in West Africa—a progressive nation taking its place among the governments of the earth—holding Africa for the African against all comers. Through Liberia as the western gateway of the Soudan was to enter a new life and progress which should ultimately affect the entire continent.

This may be, but is not yet. The glorious hope has led rather to the underestimation of the present reality. One lands in Monrovia to find a straggling village of less than 2,000 inhabitants, but by far the largest "city" in the Republic. From the anchorage the picture is not unpleasant on account of the natural beauty of the situation, but the lack of good wharves, stores,

or other improvements gives a painful contrast with Dakar, Bathurst, and Freetown. The streets are overgrown with grass or weeds, neither vehicles nor beasts of burden being in use. Casual visitors from passing ships usually leave with the impression that Liberia is the worst place they have yet seen. This opinion is likely to be strengthened by conversation with the captain and officers of the steamer, who are almost invariably possessed of a cordial detestation of the Liberians, whom they find less easy to impose upon than other Negroes of the coast. Monrovia is built on a rocky promontory at the end of a long narrow strip of land lying along the beach, and for practical purposes might as well have been located on an island, since all communication with the interior is carried on by water. Looking landward from elevated points about Monrovia, one sees only waterways and swamps, with the hills of the interior rising dim in the distance, and transient visitors who go to West Africa to see and return soon, to report their impressions, have invariably talked and written as though Monrovia were Liberia. Some have made kindly allowances for the reason that they were dealing with a Negro community under a Negro government, and have forborne the harsher or more derisive criticism which is generally indulged, but this consideration does not conceal a low opinion of the country and its prospects.

The second source of current judgment on Liberia consists of reports of missionaries or others who have visited and perhaps lived in the country for purposes of preaching, teaching, investigation, or trade. Such parties have very generally come from our Northern States or from the various European countries, and they compare, of necessity, Liberian conditions of life with those to which they have been accustomed at home. Such a comparison can have but one result for any honest observer. Liberia is so far behind in all the elements and facilities of modern progress that her side of the statement is a monotonous negative. Some zealous friends of the race have thought to overcome this disadvantage by indiscriminate praise of country, climate, people, and government; but while many of these complimentary assertions have a basis of truth, the general result is a misrepresentation, if it leads one to expect that Liberia is more than a struggling colony of about 20,000 American Negroes, scattered along 300 miles of tropical coast line in small isolated settle-

ments, nowhere sufficiently extensive to constitute an effective base for the further spread of civilization. With this fact in mind, the injustice and impertinence of the criticisms and comparisons noticed above may be readily understood. While these 20,000 emigrants from America have been struggling for a foothold against the multitudinous difficulties of pioneer life in Africa, the native tribes about them, although often restrained with what force the Government was able to exert, have extensively succeeded in killing each other off. In the British colonies a comparatively large region about the military posts has been kept for generations in comparative quiet and security, so that several large centers of native trade and incipient civilization have grown up. Bathurst, Freetown, Accra, Cape Coast Castle, and Lagos, with their thousands of inhabitants, wharves, water works, electric lights, cable communications, and other improvements, are the products of military power, aided by firm and equitable civil administration and commercial enterprise. They testify what European energy and capital are able to accomplish under these admittedly difficult conditions.

Monrovia is not an important center of native trade; it is merely the seaport which transacts the business of the eight or ten thousand American Negroes resident in the St. Paul's River region of western Liberia. This population is something unique in Africa or elsewhere, and is worthy of careful study by all who expect to report on the country. On leaving Monrovia one passes for eight miles through a narrow tidal creek, between swamps of mangrove and pandanus, before reaching the main stream of the river mentioned. Here the banks are high and the swamps entirely disappear. One sees, as for the first time, the mainland—the firm ground of Africa—the soil of Liberia; and here are the homes of her people. On either side are passed coffee farms surrounding prosperous and well-kept houses and grounds. Here has civilization visibly taken root in Africa among Africans. Notwithstanding all the poverty, weakness, backwardness, and ignorance which might be truly charged against Liberia and her citizens, we must still submit that here is more of promise for the Negro race in Africa and out than all the exotic improvements of the cities mentioned above, for here is more civilization, in every fundamental sense of the word, than in all the European colonies of tropical Africa. Without

the exercise of military power, life and property are secure and public peace is rarely disturbed. The machinery and spirit of the Anglo-Saxon principle of local government are in evidence. Though only a spectator in our political affairs, the slave imbibed the sentiments underlying free institutions, and, whatever its deficiencies, the Government of Liberia has been far more republican in theory and practice than that of any of the Latin republics, so called, either in Europe or America. Liberia furnishes important evidence for the consideration of those who fear that American institutions will not find application or appreciation among primitive peoples. It is significant that the only civic disturbance of gravity during the first half century of the existence of the Liberian Government was occasioned by the flagrant betrayal of trust on the part of a public servant, who lost his life while attempting to escape a body of enraged citizens. It cannot be asserted that official honesty and efficiency are generally of a high order, though instances of conspicuous patriotism might be detailed ; but, what is even more important, the people have lived for half a century in greater peace and security than most other nations, unimpeded in their private activities by personal violence or governmental interference.

Liberia was not founded as a trading station, to be exploited commercially for the benefit of European industrial interests. Monrovia was not intended to compete with Freetown or Lagos, and to institute such comparisons is to miss the lesson of history. Whatever the philanthropist may have hoped, it is manifestly unreasonable to expect 20,000 American freedmen would succeed in what the European governments have been unable to accomplish in the way of rapid introduction of modern civilization. Indeed, the civilization really suitable to Africa, under which the African will advance and thrive instead of advancing to extermination, has yet to be evolved. Tropical Africa is not Europe or New England, whatever it is yet to be, but Liberia is the place where the African has most conspicuously responded to the stimulus of individual opportunity. The banks of the St. Paul's river and the neighboring settlements will not only stand comparison with any other African attempt at civilization, but they will shine in contrast with the agricultural regions of the American South whence the Liberians went out. To the European and the Northern man the Liberian's pride of country

and individual self-satisfaction is hard to explain, but when one comes to realize that these men have put themselves on the financial and social plane of their former masters, the riddle is solved without the gratuitous assumption of ignorance and stupidity. A colonist who reached Liberia fifteen or twenty years ago with nothing may well feel gratified to find himself the owner of a hundred acres of coffee trees, which with good prices assures him a competence or even a superfluity. Yet this condition is not rare among the citizens of Liberia; some have two hundred acres or more, and all are owners of the land they cultivate. Few agricultural regions, if any, of our Southern States have the fertile soil and none the prolific climate of Liberia; in few would the average of individual wealth, including that of the white residents, be nearly as high as in the settled regions of Liberia. In short, when the Liberian has reached or expended the most advanced state of material prosperity and political advancement with which he was acquainted in America, it is not surprising that he views his career with a modicum of complacency. "Why should I want to go back to America?" replied such a man to my question; "nearly all the friends I left there are dead, and I can't find that the others have anything." I was his guest for a week, ate his fare, lived in his house, saw his daily round of activity, heard him dispense justice to the natives, and discuss politics with his neighbors, and finally listened to his preaching on Sunday, and throughout the whole valuable experience the thought constantly recurred, "How far preferable in usefulness, happiness, and self-respect is the life of this man above that possible to any Negro in America." Located in beautiful natural surroundings, with a comfortable home, the head of a family, respected in the neighborhood, church, and State, the fact of race had no longer a meaning for him, carried no disability, jealousy, or annoyance. He was a man, and nobody doubted it.

There is a stubborn fact, however, which seems to argue against all this testimony. If such success is possible in Liberia, why has colonization proved a failure? Why does it stand as an exploded scheme, utterly impracticable and chimerical, brought before the public only by cranks or adventurers? Why have recent attempts at emigration to Liberia failed so disastrously, resulting in the death of many of the emigrants and the return

of some of the survivors with accounts of terrible hardships from exposure, hunger, and sickness? A single distinction is necessary. No colonization in the proper sense of the word has been attempted in the last twenty years or more. On account of the distance, the change of climate, and the numerous difficulties incident to pioneer life in tropical Africa, the work, if honestly conducted, is one requiring careful attention to a vast number of apparently trivial but really important details. For opening new settlements colonists should be selected with regard to age, energy, and intelligence. Their interests while traveling should be considered, so as to spare expense and insure their arrival in Liberia in good health. On landing they should be found employment under such circumstances that they will learn as soon as possible how to maintain a self-supporting existence under the new conditions. Instead of this, there has been followed, sometimes even under the name of colonization, a policy of deportation merely, on the fatal assumption that when put ashore on his ancestral sands the Negro would be immediately able to take up the aboriginal life of his race where his kidnapped progenitors left off. This shallow notion cannot be too severely deprecated. The Negro of the United States, the "Afro-American," constitutes today a separate race, more distinct as a whole from the original African types than from the American people without the prefix. He will not leave this country to his disaster or even to his disadvantage, but there are open to him in Liberia opportunities greater than those which are being eagerly sought by Europeans in the African colonies of the various powers. The success of the early work of colonization when efficiently managed in the field is an earnest of what might be expected from a utilization of modern improvements and facilities. The exodus idea is fatal to the plan, which must be perfected and put into execution gradually. The four or five years of semi-starvation which has been the common experience of "emigrants" must be eliminated for "colonists." Reasonable prospects of comfort and self-support must come within the reach of all who make an honest endeavor. At present the chances are about three to one against survival and ultimate success. The agencies of colonization must give their attention to the Liberian end of the problem, remove the unnecessary obstacles, and at least reverse the ratio of prospects before the Negro can be honestly advised to go to Liberia.

But a few hours are necessary for the stranger to realize one of the chief difficulties in the way of progress. From Monrovia to the head of navigation of the St. Paul's river, at Millsburg, is about 20 miles. If the traveler cares to go farther he must walk, while his baggage follows on the backs of men. The watershed appearing on maps as the Kong mountains runs in Liberia so near to the coast that the numerous rivers are all short, and break into rapids usually within thirty miles from the sea. This is the unfortunate converse of the fact that there is no extensive belt of swamps or unhealthful river basins as in most of the littoral regions of Africa. There are, indeed, no swamps at all beyond the narrow tidal fringe, and this is broken in many places. The whole interior is undulating or hilly, well watered, well drained, and in its natural condition heavily forested. None of the existing settlements is in a direct line more than 20 miles from the coast, so that this vast interior region, by far the finest part of the Republic, is practically unoccupied. Hitherto settlements have been located with reference to water transportation, but desirable land thus accessible has been largely taken up, so that the construction of roads and bridges and the introduction of improved means of transportation must be one of the first numbers of any programme of improvement.

The potential prosperity of Liberia is not denied by those acquainted with the country, whatever may be their opinions of present conditions. Travelers and merchants familiar with other parts of the coast agree that the natural advantages are superior to those of any of the European colonies north of Angola, and there is no question that the Lone Star Republic could support an immense population, nor are there serious natural obstacles to the introduction of any of the modern agencies of improvement. However discouraging the present outlook may appear compared with Europe or America, the visitor should withhold judgment until his estimates have been corrected by a visit to the barbarous tribes of the interior, where the Negro may be seen in his aboriginal condition. After a few weeks of primitive life, of absorbing interest though it be, one greets with new emotions the first Liberian pioneer encountered on the return journey. There on the frontier of civilization the feeble beginnings of progress, order, and individual liberty have an unexpected significance. The agent of this mighty change to come, this man

whose superiority is testified by his visible achievements under conditions which have kept his race at the same stage of barbarism since the monuments of Egypt were built, this new type of African, who is he? He is an ordinary American Negro who worked at odd jobs and lived from hand to mouth "in the house of bondage," as he sometimes calls his former home. No longer incapable or dependent, his manliness and self-reliance are developing under these difficulties and opportunities. He who was taught to consider himself a blot on civilization has become its forerunner.

O. F. Cook.

KINGSLEY'S AFRICANA.

"As with the forest, so with the minds of the natives: unless you live alone with them, you will never get to know them."

"If you go in search of African ideas with the flag of your religion or opinions floating ostentatiously, you will gain nothing."

"Naturally the natives, after contact with Europeans, conceal the things they fear will bring them into contempt, but still cherish them in their innermost hearts."

"The Africans often exhibit remarkable mental acuity and a large share of common sense; there is nothing really childlike in their minds."

"The reasoning of the African and European is very different."

"The African intelligence is in advance of his language; the absence of the male and female genders is a frequent difficulty; it is not elaborate enough to express exact thought, and they are dependent on gesture."

"The Protestant English missionaries have had most to do with making the African useless. The missionaries turn out from their schools skillful forgers and unmitigated liars."

"The African is deficient in mechanical aptitude, and as soon as he learns to read and write he turns into a clerk."

"He is useless as a laborer, primarily from the failure of the missionary to recognize the difference between the African and themselves as being not only a difference of degree but of kin."

"What Africa needs for 200 years are workers, planters,

miners, and seamen; there are no schools to teach such things. The African has been mismanaged by the whites."

"No one in the colonies ignores the fact that in their natural state the Zulus are honest and their women virtuous; but when they have got through the apprenticeship of civilization in the missions, the women's virtue often loses much of its rigidity and the men lie and cheat."

"It is not the result of sowing bad seed, it is the ground that is not prepared for it." ("John Bull," Max O'Rell.)

"The introduction of European culture—governmental, religious, and mercantile—has a destructive influence on all lower races."

"The percentage of honorable and reliable men among the native bushmen is higher than among those educated."

"Among the West African tribes ceremonial cannibalism is nearly universal."

"Stealing is a beloved pastime."

"Twin-killing is a widely diffused custom; they are killed in all the Niger Delta tribes."

"A greater hell than existence in a West African village, under native laws, I must leave to the psychologist to describe."

"The societies outside of the great tribal societies like the Yasi or Egbo are practically murder societies, and their practices usually include cannibalism."

"Trial by ordeal is almost identical with that prescribed for unchastity in the Mosaic law."

"The imported gin is less injurious than some of the native decoctions or the use of the native plants like the African beeup, *Sanseviera quiniensis*, the seeds of which are smoked."

"I have no hesitation in saying that in the whole of West Africa in one week there is not one-quarter the amount of drunkenness you may see any Saturday night in a couple of hours in the Vauxhall road."

"The worst intoxicant is the *Kiamba* (*Cannabis sativa*), a nettle-like plant growing 6 to 10 feet high. The seeds are only used." (Compare our Indian use of mescal.)

"The African has traditions of Christian origin, though in the atmosphere of the African mind they are changed beyond recognition."

"The religious ideas of the West African, from Gambia to the

Cameroons, differ from those of the Bantu Southwest Coast tribes."

"I constantly came across superstitions identical with the Irish, Devonian, and Semitic."

"God is the creator of man, plants, animals, and the earth, but having made them he takes no further interest in them."

"The universe is peopled with unseen spirits, which are to be propitiated and placated."

Some of these spirits are created by God, others are self-existent, and many are the souls of the departed (Manu). Some of these spirits are reincarnated.

Dr. Nassau classifies these spirits as follows: First, human disembodied (Manu); second, ghosts (Abambo); third, Dryads (Ombwiri); fourth, evil spirits, causing sickness, etc.; fifth, Zelares or penates.

"The spirits uncontrolled by charms are worshipped by sacrifice and incantations and prayer. In these supplications, says Dr. Nassau, there is no praise, no love, no thanks, no confession of sin."

"When a pestilence, an attack, or death is expected or feared, the blood of goats and sheep is sprinkled upon the floor and walls of the fetish hut and upon the gateways of the village." (Jewish Passover.)

"In doubtful cases of death by witchcraft the Bantu make a post-mortem to find some trace of the witch. I am informed that it is the lung which is most usually eaten by the spirit."

Vide Animistic Vampire in New England. (American Anthropologist, vol. 9, No. 1.)

"Witchcraft is the cause of more African deaths than anything else; it kills more than the slave trade; its only rival is the smallpox, and witchcraft in African eyes is murder."

SOME OF MISS KINGSLEY'S PICTURESQUE ENGLISH.

"The English love, above all things, to settle in or as near as possible to a good reeking, stinking swamp."

"The study of natural phenomena knocks the bottom out of any man's conceit."

"The natives drank calabash after calabash until they got their back teeth under water."

"They are one and all a kind of a sort of a something that usually lives in the bush."

"Whenever I ask for fish they bring me him (mud fish). If I start catching fish nine times out of ten its him I catch."

"You jump down into unmitigated black slime to your knees, you then waddle and squatter and grunt and skylark generally."

"Our noble vessel (a dug-out) demonstrated her cataclysmic kicking power."

"The smell for a mile around was strong enough to take the paint off a door."

"Accompanied by florid language that cast a rose-pink glow smelling of sulphur around us."

"Said things to them that must have blistered their feelings."

"And we can say to our critics, 'Have you been there? Then go there! and till then shut up.'"—G. R. S.—*Travels in West Africa, Mary H. Kingsley.*

LETTER FROM LIBERIA.

MONROVIA, LIBERIA, *May 1, 1898.*

Mr. J. ORMOND WILSON,

Secretary A. C. Society, Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR: I send herewith my report for the quarter ended March 31, 1898.

During the quarter I went with the president to Cape Palmas. We had great success in settling the slight difficulties with the Grebo people. We went down the coast as far as Half Cavalla, where, since 1875, there has been so much trouble. For the first time in the history of the country a president and his suite slept in Cavalla. We carried no arms—only walking canes and umbrellas.

In the councils that ensued at Harper every town of the Grebo tribe was represented by chiefs and headmen—a thing which had never occurred before. A full description of our trip would read like an ovation. I may write an account of it later.

The president is going into the interior, accompanied by an escort, preceded by commissioners, to settle native difficulties and open up the roads.

Rev. W. H. Heard, U. S. minister, left on Friday last.

I am informed that Rev. O. L. W. Smith, his successor, and secretary, arrived this morning.

The price of coffee is very low—6 to 8 cents a pound.

I met Mr. William H. Schofield, who was educated at Hampton, Virginia, when I was in Grand Bassa. I was much with him. He seems to be an honest and true man. He is a blacksmith by trade, a Baptist preacher by profession, and has a nice house and farm at Hartford. He is a worthy, steady man, I believe.

Mr. Charles B. Dunbar is doing well. He is having erected a nice house in Monrovia. He is chief clerk of the House of Representatives.

There is a man here who remained a year or eighteen months in Sierra Leone before coming here. He is named ———, and claims to be worth a great deal of money. *Nous verrons.*

Since writing the above Mr. Michaux and Mr. Cummbatch, the former from California, the latter from Boston, have come in to see me. Mr. Cummbatch arrived on Friday last and Mr. Michaux today.

Owing to the low price of coffee and general stagnation in trade, I have not sold many books this quarter.

Your obedient servant,

J. C. Stevens,
Agent A. C. Society.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS OF WILLIAM DAVID COLEMAN, PRESIDENT OF LIBERIA, JANUARY 3, 1898.

Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives:

According to the institutions left us by our fathers, I am this day summoned before you to take upon me the solemn oath and authority of chief magistrate of this Republic for a term of two years, and, as I obey the summons, you will please allow me, since the obligation has been taken, to express my profound sense of gratitude to you and my fellow-citizens for the confidence imposed in me by your suffrage, as well as to assure you that I am not unmindful of the weighty responsibility which the position brings with it.

Through much suffering and under great disadvantages our fathers were twenty-four years on these shores under the guidance and protection of an all-wise Providence and with the assistance of the American Colonization Society in laying the foundation for an independent Negro nationality, and, according to history, this day ends the fiftieth year since the Honorable Joseph Jenkins Roberts stood before the fathers and took upon him the first solemn oath to administer the affairs of state as the first President of the Republic of Liberia.

When I reflect upon the weight and magnitude of the station and the many difficulties which necessarily attend it, I feel more like retreating from the responsible position than attempting to go forward in the discharge of the duties of the office.

But, gentlemen of the Legislature, as the powers of this government are divided into three distinct departments—the legislative, the executive, and the judiciary—I am gratified to know that you will share with me the grave responsibilities of our national burdens. I confidently expect, therefore, on all occasions your hearty coöperation in all measures tending to the welfare of the Republic.

It is expected that I shall on this occasion indicate the manner in which it is my desire to administer the national trust committed to me. It would be impossible, however, for me at the commencement of my career in this position to state in detail the policy that I may deem to be a proper one for the progress of the state at this stage of our national life. I shall have to be controlled very largely by the influence of circumstances as they arise. I will state in general terms, however, the course which I think the present exigencies of the country demand.

First, it must be remembered that we are as yet but a short remove from the threshold of our work on this continent, and therefore should seek to lay such a foundation as will transmit to posterity not a helpless impotency, but strength and efficiency. This aim should characterize our earnest endeavors in all the departments of social and political life. It should nerve us to prosecute with faithful diligence the enterprise begun by our fathers on this coast in their efforts to lay the foundation of a strong Negro nationality; to accomplish which there must be the cultivation of great minds, uniting devotion and lofty and unswerving purpose with an intense patriotism.

I deem it to be our indispensable duty to cultivate the good will and friendly feelings of all foreign nations, and especially those with whom we are in treaty stipulations. This shall be my constant effort on all occasions.

The time has fully come, in my opinion, when stronger and more determined efforts should be put forth by the government to teach our aboriginal brethren our fraternal relations to them, and to explain to the natives the good feelings which should exist between them and us at all times. There are obvious reasons showing how necessary and desirable it is that we should take a more direct and active part in the work of enlightening our native brethren, and impressing upon all classes of our civilized population the deep sense of duty and the advantages of speedily training and incorporating them among us. There are political, religious, and moral reasons why we should work to this end.

1. We cannot reasonably expect to erect a permanent national structure upon the foundation laid by our fathers without the incorporation of these our brethren into the body politic.

2. There can be but little life and strength imparted to our religious work apart from them.

3. We are bound to labor for their moral elevation, without which they cannot be made the polished stones for the political building which we are striving to rear with such intense interest.

Then, too, there are agricultural, mechanical, and commercial considerations that should influence our efforts to this great end. The great quantity of fertile lands occupied by them must be brought under cultivation by improved methods. Modern plans of economy and skill in dealing with the soil must be introduced before we can procure from the earth the amount of contribution she is capable of yielding to supply home demands and foreign exchange. They must be taught to erect comfortable buildings, to construct roads and buildings, to work machinery of all kinds. There is untold wealth in the hands of these interior tribes. But a way must be opened for the conveyance of the same to points where it can be discreetly handled and made to contribute to the best interest of the natives, the improvement of the tribes, and the benefit of mankind generally. In keeping with the above ideas, it shall be one of my chief aims to strengthen the friendly feelings already existing

between the Government and the tribes near to our settlements, and to establish and maintain more fraternal relations with the interior and distant ones. I shall endeavor to improve every favorable opportunity of pointing out to them the fraternal relations we sustain to them and the consequent good feelings that ought to exist between us; for it must be borne in mind that so long as we keep at a distance from these brethren, so long shall we find it impossible to influence them with our civilization and cultivation.

It shall be my constant aim to encourage internal improvements by opening up and constructing good roads to the interior, the building of bridges of a safe and durable kind, and the erection of suitable and substantial public buildings for the security of government property.

I deem it highly necessary for the development of our resources to give encouragement and assistance to the various branches of national industry. Among the first of these, agriculture should claim the special attention of the government. Little system has been practiced in our farming operations. In order to advance our independence, it is highly necessary that our people not only work industriously, but carefully and discreetly. I doubt if there can be found anywhere a more diligent class of men than our farmers, or a class that would be more successful under like circumstances. Destitute as they are of the necessary implements and machinery so useful in saving labor and rendering it efficient, they work day after day, using their bone and sinew with a degree of industry and perseverance highly commendable.

In this connection, also, it shall be my aim to encourage the promotion of agriculture and other industrial companies, to secure the advantages of coöperation so necessary everywhere, and more especially in a young nation like ours; nor can I fail to record my sentiment here in favor of devoting more attention to the extensive cultivation of food for home consumption, such as corn, rice, yams, eddoes, etc.; and in addition to coffee for export, we should grow and prepare for market cocoa, kola nuts, cotton, jute, and sugar cane for the manufacturing of sugar. These industries, together with that of the rearing of cattle and poultry, will afford employment to many who now complain of the want of work, as well as add largely to the comfort of living in the country.

The mercantile interest of the State will also claim deserving attention and protection. The merchant, while prosecuting distinctively his branch of business, should not fail to recognize the fact that his interest is intimately associated with that of the farmer, and should therefore afford every possible encouragement to the latter.

I would also suggest, and it will be my aim to foster, the application of the principle of division of labor in the mechanical industry of the State. The mechanics are an important class of our citizens and they should seek to equip themselves properly for their work, and thus place themselves in a position to procure ready and constant employment at fair wages.

In order to attain the highest efficiency and success, I am of the opinion that the aforesaid branches of industry should be kept separate and distinct; that it is impracticable for either of those above mentioned to be blended profitably and successfully with the other in the single-handed way that it has been attempted here.

It will be the unswerving policy of my administration to put forth every effort for the encouragement of higher education in the country, and in this connection I have to call attention to Liberia College of this city. The very unsatisfactory results of the change made two years ago in giving the presidency of that institution to a foreigner, who, it appears, cannot remain in this country, but is obliged to pass most of his time in a different climate, and who up to the present has done nothing toward opening and carrying on the same, impose upon me the duty of taking the control of the college and placing it under such auspices as may be deemed necessary for putting it again into active operation. This institution has been of incalculable service to the Republic in raising up men to fill the most important posts, both in church and state, and it would be inexcusable recklessness in us at this stage of the Republic to allow it to be rendered useless when there are daily increasing demands for the highest educational facilities to supply the growing needs of the nation. In addition to the course of studies formerly pursued in the college, I propose to have others introduced of a technical character, so that our youth may be trained at home in all the departments of knowledge so necessary for the development of the resources and industries of the country.

There is another very important subject which must have the attention of the Government. I allude to that of various missionary and other benevolent institutions that are now or may be established in the country for education and the spread of the gospel. These operations, when conducted upon proper methods, assist greatly in promoting the growth and strength of the State by implanting sound moral principles in the youth. I am therefore decidedly of the opinion that all provisions and clothing imported by missionaries of the gospel and others employed in the service of any of these institutions should be exempt from customs dues when intended for their own personal use. I do not mean by this, however, to exempt from these dues ministers and missionaries who will take advantage of the privilege and import, for instance, six pairs of shoes—three for family purposes and three for sale—or four pieces of goods, with the view of using two and selling two. To do so would be unfair to the mercantile department, which is required to pay duties on their importations for sale.

I have already said, fellow-citizens, that it is impossible for me on this occasion to enter into a detailed statement of my future policy in the State. Only a few prominent points are alluded to now. I shall try, by the direction of an all-wise Providence, to look carefully to the best interests of the country, and, after due deliberation, endeavor to adopt the policy best suited under the circumstances to attain the desired object.

I shall not hesitate to alter any of my plans whenever I shall be convinced that the changed circumstances of the country demand an altered national policy.

Fellow-citizens, I enter this day upon the duties of this high office with, I trust, becoming meekness and a just estimate of the feeble abilities I bring with me to the management of our national affairs. I am fully aware of the fact that the utmost wisdom I may possess, and the most prudent policy that I may adopt, cannot be otherwise than fragmentary and imperfect. I shall, therefore, be always open to suggestions from all classes of my fellow-citizens interested in the welfare of the State.

I believe it to be my first duty in the high position which I this day assume to renounce on all occasions prejudice and to leave myself free to profit by new facts, new subjects, past errors, and experiences from whatever source they may come; and I

take this occasion to repeat what I have said before, that if any of you, fellow-citizens, who love your country above your selfish interests shall have reason to believe that I am in error on some point of policy which you think will weaken the government, your advice and aid, tendered in a proper manner, will be thankfully received. To give counsel and assistance will be more just and patriotic on your part than to become disaffected and try by senseless clamor to bring yourselves into political notoriety and the Government into disgrace.

With these views I throw myself confidently upon the sympathy and support of the patriotic class of my fellow-citizens, believing that if they will make the necessary sacrifice in giving aid to carry out such of these suggestions as shall be convenient we soon shall overcome our present embarrassments.

COFFEE CULTURE IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

Thus far coffee has been found to thrive best at altitudes varying from 500 to 2,000 feet, though fine trees may be seen at nearly sea level and a few feet beyond 2,000. It is generally conceded that trees grown near sea level are more susceptible to blight than when grown at higher altitudes. It is said that 42° is the lowest temperature coffee will stand. An elevation where the temperature ranges from 48° to 80° is thought to be best for successful growing.

The worst enemy of the coffee tree is wind. In every case where the tree is exposed to a strong wind the evil effects become apparent in stunted growth or lack of foliage. To guard against this evil, the ridges on the land should not be cleared; the timber should be left standing as a wind-break. Wherever wind-breaks cannot be made in this way, trees should be planted for this purpose. The banana is a quick-growing tree, and besides accomplishing the object for which planted, its fruit may be used as food for pigs, chickens, and other stock. The castor bean is also planted both for wind-break and shade. It is claimed by some that the castor enriches the soil. In Hamakua they plant the Monterey cypress for wind-breaks. They are raised in nurseries and set out when about 12 inches high, at the same

time the coffee plant is planted. They grow rapidly and make excellent wind-breaks.

The question of shelter against wind is a very important one, and should be taken into consideration when purchasing land. For this reason alone I feel warranted in advising a person not to buy an acre of land without first going over it and satisfying himself that there is sufficient land sheltered or susceptible of being sheltered from the wind. Some recent settlers in Hamakua have learned this lesson. Last summer a tract of land was laid out in lots and the owner very wisely decided to reserve strips of land covered with timber between every other lot as wind-breaks. The land was probably plotted in Honolulu with insufcient information as to its topography, the consequence being that the barren ridges in some instances have been sold for coffee lands, and the fertile valleys, with the tops of the timber many feet below the ridge, reserved as wind-breaks.

In some districts there is so little wind that the question hardly enters into the subject of land buying. This is especially so in the Kona district, which is situated on the leeward side of the island. It is true they occasionally have a hard storm, known as a "kona." Puna and Olaa also have very little wind.

There is great diversity of opinion regarding shade. At first it seems that all the planters paid great attention to this subject, leaving large trees standing in the clearing, and where no trees could be left they planted rapid-growing ones for this purpose. This was no doubt done because most of the writers on coffee are strong advocates of shade. I have read several of these books, and since my visit to the plantations I am convinced that what they mean by shade is what a planter will get by the high forest trees left standing around a total clearing of 10 to 20 acres. Now, a number of the most successful planters in each of the districts I have visited are advocates of plenty of sun, and seem to be meeting with good success. A well-known writer on coffee culture says:

"In seacoast, or moist climates, planting without shade is generally the custom; in dry, arid climates shade is indispensable, while in wet or damp districts coffee cannot be grown to advantage under the shade of the largest tree. The methods of cultivation should therefore be different in the differing districts or localities. To be emphatic, climate should regulate shade—that

is, shaded plantations thrive best in hot, dry climates, and unshaded in moist or humid ones."

The above would seem to be good advice, yet I have seen it disproved in all the districts in Hawaii. Take the Hamakua district, where the rainfall is very light—this year they had a drought—notwithstanding which Mr. Horner is a believer in sun, and would hereafter make total clearings, leaving only a few trees standing for ornamental purposes. Mr. Horner's opinion deservedly carries great weight, and I found that the new settlers on the Hamakua homesteads were cutting down everything. On the other hand, I saw four and one-half acres of coffee, ranging from three and one-half years to six years, that could not be surpassed by anything I had seen in this same district, growing in dense shade. This coffee was owned by a Portuguese named Marion Piva. Shade in this instance was a matter of necessity and not choice, as all the work of clearing was done by himself. I noticed he had girdled the timber, and I fear when it begins to die and the limbs fall he will lose many a fine coffee tree.

Notwithstanding the dryness in Hamakua, shade does not seem necessary, because the soil apparently never bakes, but remains light.

The Olaa district is just the opposite of the Hamakua as regards rainfall. In Olaa, I am told, twenty-four hours without rain is considered dry weather. Here shade does not seem to make any difference, so far as I could see. Opinions differ on this subject, however. Two of the show places in this district contradict each other in regard to shade. One is planted on ground which was originally covered with grass and fern; in the other the coffee is planted in a partial clearing in a dense, tropical forest.

In Puna the conditions are very much like what they are in Olaa, but I found more advocates of sun than I did of shade. The plantation of the Messrs. Goudy is no longer an experiment, though their oldest trees are only three years old. This year, on 25 acres of three-year-old trees they say they will get 16,000 pounds of clean coffee. This coffee grows in the sun.

Mr. Harry Rycroft, who has a place in Puna and also manages several adjoining places, is a firm believer in sun. In talking with him on this subject, I suggested that it might be a good

plan to plant castor beans to shade the trees while they were young and remove them as soon as the coffee became hardy enough to stand the sun. He said he did not want any plant not hardy enough to stand the sun from the first, and was a firm believer in pulling up every tree which showed early signs of weakness and planting another.

It will be seen that this subject, which is generally thought so important, is far from being settled in Hawaii. The writers on coffee culture no doubt write from experience gained in the tropics, where the sun has a tendency to bake the soil and is not tempered by the winds, as is the case in these islands.

Coffee seems to grow on the island of Hawaii, provided it is well planted in good soil and protected from the sun.

Having decided upon the land, the first thing to do is to clear it. At the start, this is best done by contract. Gangs of Chinese and Japanese will do this at so much per acre, according to the growth and the manner of clearing. The first consideration is the question of wind. The aspect of the land must be studied, and timber left standing between the wind and the clearing. Then must be decided the question of shade. If shade is thought best, eight trees to the acre must be left standing.

Clearing heretofore has generally been done according to the depth of the planter's purse. Some have felled the trees and left them in rows to rot; others have burnt all the timber. Those who cleared four years ago, burning everything, are now beginning to consider the question of fuel for their drying-houses. With all the timber which is being destroyed, this question of fuel will become in a short time a very important one. It must be borne in mind that the islands produce nothing for fuel but wood. I would advise, if the money could be spared, that all the tree fern and undergrowth be left on the land to rot and the timber be cut into cord lengths and piled for future use.

In regard to clearing, the following is furnished me by Mr. Charles Furneaux, our consular agent at Hilo. Mr. Furneaux has had considerable experience in planting coffee and is the owner of some fine coffee lands in Olaa:

There seems to be a diversity of opinion as to whether it is best to clear off all trees and undergrowth or leave a number of trees for shade; also, whether it is best to burn everything or leave it on the land to decay.

Planters preferring to purchase fertilizers within a few years may be able to have finer-looking fields by burning off everything.

It is said to be advantageous to permit the undergrowth to decay, as vegetable matter furnishes valuable plant food.

All authorities seem to agree that coffee requires shade.

I have tried the above methods, except burning, and find that coffee trees four years old, grown where they are well shaded by ohia trees, have this year yielded from 2 to 6 pounds per tree, and are by far finer specimens than those grown in open fields. In stating my experience, I do not wish it to be understood that coffee will not yield as well in the open. It is quite probable that in some localities trees may be found doing equally well without shade; yet, in making a new clearing, I shall leave standing not less than eight ohia trees to the acre for shade. I shall leave all undergrowth on the land to decay, as I am convinced that decomposed vegetable matter is one of the most valuable of fertilizers.

The land being clear, the planter must decide whether he will buy one-year old plants from a neighboring planter or start a nursery and wait one year. Perhaps the best thing to do would be both. Buy enough plants to plant the clearing, and plant seed for next year's planting. In the interviews, it will be seen that the cost of plants is fixed at $5 per thousand. I venture to say that they cannot be bought for that today. While in Hawaii I saw them sold for $10, and they were hard to get at that figure.

In selecting a spot for a nursery it would be well to place it where it is well shaded and can be frequently watered. After the seed is in the ground it should be covered with fern leaves until the shoot is well out of the ground, for, unless protected from the sun, the tender shoot will burn.

Until recently only native seed has been planted, but now it is thought best to import the seed. That obtained from Guatemala is thought much of. It is claimed that a tree raised from Guatemalan seed will be as far advanced at four years as one at six from native seed. Trees raised from imported Java seed have done well.

Wild plants taken from old groves often do well, and are said to come into bearing earlier than nursery plants. Experience has shown that when wild plants are used it will be found ad-

vantageous to cut them back to within 4 or 5 inches from the ground. Plants thus treated will send up a strong shoot and usually make a fine tree.

Layers are sometimes used. They are simply a section cut out of an old tree. They are placed horizontally in the ground, after the manner of planting sugar cane. The best results from layers have been obtained by allowing a quantity of branches to remain in a heap till many showed signs of sending out shoots. The branch is then cut several inches on each side of the shoot and placed in the ground with the shoot exposed to the air and light. In time the branch will send out a tap root from each end and from the center. Some of the finest trees in Olaa were produced in this way, and they have proved to be not only very strong and healthy, but have produced more coffee per tree than was obtained from nursery or wild trees.

Planting the seed where it is to grow has been tried by some with success. This method has the advantage of being less expensive, but I saw no evidence of its becoming very popular.

This most important work is done on a dull, cloudy day, whenever possible, as in bright sunshine the plants would probably burn. It is an operation which requires the most careful supervision on the part of the person whose money is invested, because the evil effects of bad planting often do not become noticeable until the tree should begin to bear. Whenever a tree shows signs of bad planting it should be pulled up and another plant substituted. There are many ways of planting, but they all have as their object the prevention of a bent tap root and the proper position of the lateral roots. The careful planter selects only the strongest and healthiest-looking plants, with six pairs of leaves. These are very carefully taken up, with sufficient soil around the roots to protect them, and carried in boxes to the ground to be planted. The soil in the holes, which have been previously prepared, is scooped out with the hands to a trifle greater depth than the plant is to be planted. Great care must be exercised that they are placed no deeper in the ground than they were before. The soil is removed from around the roots of the plant, and about 3 or 4 inches of the tap root is cut off with a sharp knife in a slanting direction. The fibrous roots are also pruned off and spread out so as to prevent any tangling. The plant is then held in the hole and is perfectly straight. Soil is

then put in until the lateral roots are reached. These should be spread out in a horizontal fashion and then covered with earth. During all this time the hand holding the plant should not be taken off. Just before the ground is firmly pressed down the plant should be pulled up the fraction of an inch to make doubly sure that the tap root is straight. Good, healthy plants set out in this way will give good returns and repay the planter for all trouble. I do not think any man just starting in should trust this most important work to an ordinary laborer. He should employ some one to supervise this work who can show good three-year-old coffee trees. Five to ten dollars per day would not be too much to pay if he can obtain perfect planting.

Distance between trees seems to have been a matter of taste, varying from 5 by 6 feet to 9 by 9 feet. The distance should depend upon how high the trees are to be allowed to grow. If it is the intention to top them at four and one-half feet and prune liberally, 6 by 6 feet is far enough apart. If they are to be allowed to grow 6 or 7 feet high, they should be planted wider apart.

Weeding must be attended to from the very beginning. If once allowed to get a good start it would be cheaper to clear new land and begin again. Until the trees are one year old, if the land will permit, the weeds can be kept down at very little expense by the use of a cultivator, but after the lateral roots begin to grow this method will be dangerous.—*William Haywood in U. S. Consular Report.*

THE RISING IN SIERRA LEONE.

To assign the hut tax as the cause wholly or even mainly of the troubles in Sierra Leone is to judge superficially and to jump to a conclusion without full knowledge of the facts. It is desirable, therefore, that the circumstances which have brought about the rising should be accurately set forth in order that whatever opinion may eventually be formed shall at least be based on fact, and not on the mere fancies which have formed the flimsy foundation of many fallacies.

The so-called colony of Sierra Leone, as at present red painted on African maps, consists of a settlement of very limited extent, and of its hinterland now absorbed into a protectorate.

Although the colony has been part of the British dominions for more than a hundred years, the authority of the Crown has not extended inland from the sea more than about twenty miles, except in the Imperi district, which, however, had practically to be relegated again to native rule. Not even was the whole coast line subject to our sway, for the peninsula of Sierra Leone, the island of Sherbro, and Turner's peninsula—all mere shore fringes—formed the whole Negro settlement under our control; and Songo Town was practically the limit wherein the Queen's writ ran. Freetown, the capital, is said to have the largest trade of any place on the west coast of Africa, but the appearance of the place would hardly lead one to suppose that any due proportion of the resulting wealth has been expended in the colony in the past. Although the territory was originally secured as as asylum for destitute Negroes and liberated slaves, its inhabitants being thus colonists in the literal sense of the word, yet Sierra Leone soon became to all intents and purposes a trading station—a factory whereby traders were enriched, the profits being spent in England. Little money has been expended in public improvements, and it is only in the present governor's time that anything has been done toward opening up the country by a railway. The colony proper had an area of less than a thousand square miles, while the protectorate is nearly forty times as large. Prior to the proclamation of that protectorate in 1896 it had been the policy of the Government to make treaties with the various chiefs for trade and for the maintenance of law and order and the abolition of the slave traffic, but, except for the trading facilities thereby obtained, the treaties were hardly worth the paper they were written on. At last the affair of Waima, when Captain Lendy was killed in our territory by a force under French command, brought matters to a head, and negotiations were set on foot for a definite delimitation of the respective spheres. With a view to arriving at a fair boundary line and to see for himself the disputed territories, the present governor of Sierra Leone, Sir Frederic Cardew, K. C. M. G., made an extensive tour of several hundred miles into the hinterland, and that of itself is no small undertaking when it is remembered that neither horses nor mules are available for such a progress, neither being able to stand the climate. The governor has since made two other long journeys on foot north and south of his

previous line, and proceeded along the proposed boundary, with the result that Mr. Chamberlain was enabled to proclaim a protectorate and to clearly define its limits. By this proclamation the governor, acting under the secretary of state for the colonies, has practically added some 40,000 square miles to our West African possessions. Though nominally subject to our influence, prior to 1896 slavery was in full force and the slave trade a flourishing industry. Savage rights and cannibalism were constantly in vogue, and the terrible murders by the dreaded "human leopards" added a new horror to tribal life.

When once, however, we had taken the country under our charge it naturally behooved the Government to put down slavery and make an end of cannibalism in any form, and it is to the British efforts in this direction that the recent rising is due. Domestic slavery was approached with skill and caution, and was dealt with rather by negative than positive process. For instance, any slave who escaped to the colony proper was, *ipso facto*, free, and no process of law could be taken for the recovery of a runaway. Then, again, any chief who killed or ill-used a slave was held guilty of murder or maiming, and was dealt with in the courts. These vigorous measures called forth considerable opposition from the native chiefs. Protests were made also by certain traders in the colony, for, as a consequence of the abolition of slavery, labor had to be paid for and profits were somewhat diminished. To more effectively police the newly acquired territories, the frontier police was increassd from about 200 officers and men to a strength of 600 men and 20 officers. The protectorate was divided into five approximate equal districts—Karene, Ronietta, Bandajuma, Koinadugu, and Panguma—and each was provided with a district commissioner and a company of frontier police. With increased responsibilities and duties in keeping the Queen's peace in the protectorate, it became necessary for the colony to cast about for increased revenue to meet the cost of the administration. At the present time, with specific duties on the most important imports and a 10 per cent. ad valorem duty on other goods, it is impracticable to make any addition to the customs dues; consequently recourse has been had to the hut tax, which is a source of revenue in every colony, British or foreign, in Africa.

The ordinance imposing a five-shilling tax or its equivalent

was passed nearly two years ago, but only came into operation on January 1, 1898. The protests against the tax were feeble and few and not anything like so general as those against interference with the slave trade. But the Freetown *Press* fanned the discontent of the up-country people, and in unmistakable language urged the tribesmen to resist. In Freetown itself, for instance, the native municipal authorities are afraid to impose ordinary local rates even for such desirable ends as water supply or a fire brigade, and reliance is placed on Government grants in aid.

During his tours the governor had every opportunity of gauging the ability of the people to pay the tax, and its provisions were framed so as not to weigh oppressively on the community. Two out of the five districts were altogether exempt from its operation, and it was only to be levied in Karene, Ronietta, and Bandajuma. It has been frequently stated that the tax of 5s. is levied on huts made of boughs of trees and leaves, huts which are not of equal value to the amount of the impost, and, if that were so, most emphatically the natives would have a very real grievance. As a matter of fact, however, the huts paid on are permanent, substantial dwellings, often of several rooms, with wattle and mud walls seven or eight feet high and a foot thick, and with lattice roofs thickly thatched and projecting so as to form a sort of piazza. Others again have an enclosed compound. Many of them have windows and doors of woodwork and European bedsteads and furniture, and most have tables and chairs. The huts are quite fit for European occupation and the governor during his tours invariably slept in them.

A second fallacy is that the tax is collected in a harsh way, contrary to native ideas. In reality the collection is placed in the hands of the chiefs—a system in vogue in all the neighboring colonies—and the chiefs receive 20 per cent. for their trouble. With the numerous exemptions allowed, the average tax per hut is less than 3s. 6d. The actual tax can be paid either in money or in kind by a bushel of palm kernels or a bag of rice. As regards the ability of the people to pay, there is no kind of question about it, and the irritation against the tax is not due to the amount. The pay of the many carriers who bring down the country produce is at the rate of 1s. 3d. a day. In Freetown the public works department pays 9d. a day for laborers, and until

lately 1s. was the Government rate. Very few days' labor would thus bring in enough money for the payment of the tax. In Zululand the hut tax amounts to 14s., and that on a hut of far inferior intrinsic value.

In the adjoining colony of Guinée Française the French authorities imposed a poll-tax of 2f. per head; but owing to the difficulties of collecting and estimating the product, huts instead of heads were taken as the basis of taxation, and on the assumption that the average number of people dwelling in each hut was five, a hut tax of 10f., without any exemptions, has been substituted, and is paid without any trouble.

For more than a month after the tax came into operation no difficulties of collection were experienced, and the proportion of tribute received up to the middle of February encouraged the Government to expect that the anticipated product of the tax—£8,000 for the first year—would be realized. About that time one Bai Bureh, a minor chief of no great importance, whose country is in the Karene district, about 40 miles northeast of Freetown, refused to pay. When the frontier police went to collect the amount owing, Bai Bureh collected his "war boys" and fired on the Government officials, who, being outnumbered, retired on Port Lokko. A company of the First West India regiment was sent to reinfore the police, and convoys were organized to provision Port Lokko and Karene. Although Bai Bureh's country only measures 25 miles by 10, considerable difficulties were experienced, and eventually a whole battalion was employed. Much valuable time was lost, owing to the want of mobility of the troops and the natural difficulties met with, and Bai Bureh himself became at last the attacking party. He is a man of some ability and of considerable experience in warfare, having fought both with us and against us in former times, and thus is no novice in European methods. His efforts were mainly directed to killing the white officers and the carriers, and up to now the losses in that district have been six officers dead from wounds and fever and eight wounded, while several white non-commissioned officers have also been shot. Carriers, who form the whole transport of a West India regiment and who number about three to each private and seven to each officer, are hard to get, and detachments operating later were much hampered.

When news came of Bai Bureh's revolt and successful resist-

ance, great excitement was caused, with the result that all the chiefs rose except four, and no fraction of the tax has since been collected. It was particularly at that juncture that the evil influence of the Freetown *Press* was apparent, Bai Bureh being held up to admiration as a Mahdie, lauded as a kind of native Hampden, and flattered as a savior of his country.

An illiterate and ignorant chief, albeit of innate ability, can hardly be expected to have fine discrimination or sense of proportion, and the fulsome flattery of the native journals tended to make him think he could defy British power. The statements of some obscure writer in the capital, when translated to him and his assembled war boys, had a marked effect, and he became inflated with a sense of his own importance and strength, and was stiffened in his determination to hold out.

The leading tribes of the protectorate are the Timmanis in the north and the Mendis in the south, with the Yonnis occupying the middle districts eastward of Freetown. For a time it was thought, or rather hoped, that the hostility of these tribes would stand in the way of any general rising, and that Bai Bureh and his Timmani war boys could be dealt with separately. When, however, the Mendis rose and massacred white missionaries at Rotifunk and killed English-speaking Sierra Leone traders to the estimated number of 1,500, the real nature of the revolt became apparent.

It was discovered that the Porro organization was very widely spread, and that the common hatred of the British was sufficient to cause the rival tribes to coalesce. The Porro is one of the secret societies so frequent in savage countries. Columns of troops were organized to proceed to Rotifunk and to relieve the various posts in the Ronietta district, and it was found that the massacres had been very general. Nine whites, including three women, had been killed, and in some cases tortured.

One very notable performance took place in the Bandajuma district, further south. Captain C. E. Carr, of the Yorkshire light infantry, at present serving in the frontier force, was collecting the hut tax in the Hoya country, eastward of Bandajuma, when he first heard of the rising. Setting out at once and marching day and night with his little force, he covered 43 miles in 24 hours, reached Bandajuma just before it was attacked, and in all probability saved it from being overwhelmed.

All the posts have now been relieved except Panguma, and a force is now engaged in marching to that place, which is outside the taxed district altogether.

At one time, early in May, there were no troops in Freetown, and Her Majesty's ship *Fox* was absent on a punitive expedition at Sherbro. Grave fears were entertained that trouble might arise in the capital, as it was reported that some thousands of Mendis were threatening Songotown, in the colony proper, and less than 30 miles away.

A local volunteer force, consisting of all the Europeans in the place and natives in government employ, was hastily formed, and rifles and ammunition were served out. The main danger to be guarded against is that of fire, and with large numbers of Mendis settled in Kossotown, a suburb of Freetown, there may be ground of alarm. When the massacres of Sierra Leonean traders took place the laudation of Bai Bureh ceased at once and piteous appeals were made to the English. For the present, now that the rains are on, the troops are merely holding posts up country, and it is hoped that the insurrection may die out during the wet season. Many competent authorities, however, consider that there will be no security until the rebellious chiefs have been punished, and it is more than likely that a joint naval and military expedition may be necessary about October, when operations will again be practicable.

The facts clearly prove that the rising is primarily due to a general hatred of the British for having put down slavery and savage practices, and the hut tax is merely a pretext for the revolt. As regards the hut tax itself, it would be the height of folly to remit it, as natives cannot understand clemency of that kind. Far better would it be to impose it on the colony proper, as much of the resentment of the chiefs against the tax arises from the knowledge that the Sierra Leoneans pay no direct taxes, and that the new railway will mainly benefit Freetown.—*The London Times.*

FOREIGN EDUCATION OF AFRICANS.

Time only serves to emphasize by melancholy incidents the risk attending the education of Africans in Europe, while it furnishes at the same time illustrations of the deplorable results of

this system of foreign training. Our views on this most important question are well known, and we hardly think there is one intelligent native in any part of the coast but who views the matter with doubt and some misgiving; and yet the practice of sending children to Europe to be educated still obtains, parents relying on the hope that some means will be discovered by which what is good in the foreign training will be maintained and made productive and what is evil modified and controlled; but this hope loses sight of the fact that the difference between the African and the European is not a difference of degree but of kind, and so what is compatible to the one is not compatible to the other. This is evidenced in the effect upon the African of the adoption by him of European habits and modes of life and which in innumerable instances has resulted in whole families becoming extinct. The following, quoted from a local contemporary, offers grim corroboration of the fact:

"The Rev. J. Johnson, pastor of St. Paul's, in an address delivered in his church on the occasion of the funeral of Master George Blaize, made some observations which deserve to be seriously pondered over by parents and others entrusted with the care of young people, and indeed by all who are interested in the welfare of our country and race. One of his observations was to the effect that the increasingly large number of youths that are succumbing year by year, both in Lagos and other parts of the coast, to the fatal attacks of disease, and the fact that comparatively few live to be old, especially in communities that have come very largely under European influence, are placing the matter of the continued existence of many families in a very serious position and are indeed jeopardizing it; and he referred to the fact that several families, both in Sierra Leone and other parts of the coast, some favored with children and others not so blessed, have actually ceased to exist. This is patent to all who have eyes to see and minds to reflect, and it is for our race and country, especially when several such extinct or almost extinct families were people of high social standing and were capable of doing much to advance the interest both of themselves and their people, a matter of no small moment."

We have not failed to direct attention from time to time to this fatal result following the adoption by the African in Africa of European habits and modes of life, and which has been so

strikingly exemplified at Sierra Leone and in Liberia. In fact, the extinction of the Maroon and Nova Scotian populations at Sierra Leone, the fearful decrease in the Americo-Liberian population, and the fatal effects observable upon native converts in various parts of the coast who venture to assume European dress and manners, establish the fact beyond all doubt that European habits and modes of life are hurtful in the highest degree to the African when in his own country, and that any attempt on his part to wholly adopt the same means nothing short of death and extinction. This is certainly a most serious matter and has a most pertinent bearing, not only upon the question of foreign education, but opens up the wider question as to whether European methods of education as a whole are suitable to the African. On this wider question there is sure to be a difference of opinion, but we are inclined to fall in with the view of Prof. Booker T. Washington, of America, on the subject. He says:

"It seems to me that the temptation in educational and missionary work is to do for a people that which was done a thousand years ago or is being done for a people a thousand miles away, without always making a careful study of the needs and condition of the people whom we are trying to help. The temptation is to run all people through a certain educational mold, regardless of the conditions of the subject or the end to be accomplished. Unfortunately for us as a race, our education was begun immediately after the war too nearly where New England education ended. We seemed to overlook the fact that we were dealing with a race that had little occasion to labor in their native land, and consequently brought little love for labor with them to America. * * * Added to this was the fact that they had been forced for 250 years to labor without compensation, under circumstances that were calculated to do anything but teach them to see the dignity, beauty, and civilizing power of intelligent labor. * * *

"We forgot the industrial education that was given to the Pilgrim Fathers of New England in clearing and planting its cold, bleak, and snowy hills and valleys, in the providing of shelter, founding the small mills and factories, in supplying themselves with home-made garments, thus laying the foundation of an industrial life that now keeps going a large part of the colleges and missionary effort of the world. * * *

"You cannot graft fifteenth-century civilization onto a twentieth-century civilization by the mere performance of mental gymnastics."

It is this tendency of the present methods of education to run the African through the European mold, without any regard to his condition and necessities, which renders them both a failure and hurtful to the subject. It is impossible, as Professor Washington says, to graft fifteenth-century civilization onto twentieth-century civilization by the mere performance of mental gymnastics. In other words, it is impossible for the experiment to be successful which would lift a man by a sudden flight from a barbarous or primitive condition into the highly civilized state to which the European has attained after centuries of struggle and training. The aim of the present system of education pursued by the African is to do this. He, forsooth, would essay to jump across the wide and giddy chasm, completely ignoring the discipline and moral culture which are the outcome of long years of development and without which the position becomes untenable. The pernicious effect of such a system of education is manifested in the practical life of the African so taught. In everything he essays his idea is to begin at the top. His impression of a school invariably takes the form of an academy, a college, or a university, while his conception of a church never stops short of a cathedral with all its paraphernalia of chancel, choir, organ, and canon. The idea of starting with small means and working up to great results does not enter into the category of his business plans, and as a result they all prove failures. There is no need to dilate upon the pernicious effects of such a system of training. What the primitive conditions in Africa require are not an academy nor a university, which can only lead to an unprofitable display of mental gymnastics, but a system of industrial training which will become the foundation of an industrial life, permanent and strong, and from which will be evolved a mental development and culture indigenous in character and adapted to the needs and requirements of the race. Under present conditions in Africa it is the hands and not the head that demand the first attention. It is by agriculture, the factory, and the workshop that the way is to be prepared for the academy and the college, and so long as this order is reversed, so long will the advancement of the African continue to be problematical.—*Lagos Weekly Record.*

UNITED STATES TRADE WITH SOUTH AFRICA.

HORSES AND MULES.

The business in horses and mules is at a standstill, for the present at least. When the rinderpest attacked the cattle of this country the hauling of freight, which had for years been done by oxen, ceased, and it was necessary to find some substitute. Mules, being hardy and not readily affected by the climate, were imported in large numbers, both from the United States and South America. The demand was for mules from 14 to 16 hands high and weighing from 900 to 1,100 pounds. With good weather and care on the voyage, they arrived in fair condition, some of them gaining flesh on the way. They met with a ready sale, bringing from $250 to $300 each, but with increased shipments prices dropped, competition was keen, and forced auction sales at unremunerative prices resulted.

Transportation to the interior by rail was expensive. Durban is 800 miles from Cape Town by sea, Kimberly 600 miles by rail in quite the opposite direction, Johannesburg 1,000 miles north of Cape Town by rail. In none of these last-named places is the market large enough to take direct shipments, and the reshipment at Cape Town, with dock charges and the duty of $5 per mule or horse, practically eats up the profit.

Another cause, and perhaps the main one, of depression in this line of trade is the financial condition of the farmers and others who need draft animals. The drought, fly, and locust, following the rinderpest, produced in many cases dire distress.

It must be borne in mind that, although this is a very large country, the population is sparse, and our American mules are only fit for city use, where they can be stabled and fed. In this country transport animals have to thrive upon what they can pick up. In Rhodesia and the northern Transvaal mules and horses die from climatic disease, only donkeys and oxen withstanding it successfully. The colonial farmers also report against the suitability of our mules for their work; hence, outside of the principal cities already mentioned, there is little or no market, and as traction engines and electric motor cars are rapidly coming to the front, the demand for horses and mules is decreasing.

With good times, good crops, and a class of farmers who will work and not leave all to the blacks, the demand will again exist.

In Natal a smaller breed of horses and mules is in demand; these come from South America—a fifteen days' journey as against five weeks from North America—and are feely sold at prices with which we cannot attempt to compete. They also come from a similar climate, where they are handled more or less in the same manner as the native animals of this country.

I would advise those engaged in the horse and mule business in the United States not to make any shipments at present. After this country begins to raise crops and the mines again produce, no better market for good horses can be found.

VEHICLES.

Imports of vehicles into South Africa in 1897, through all ports except Lourenço Marquez, were valued at $472,804.54, the United States furnishing $355,985.28.

The United States has thus far been prominent in the vehicle trade in this country. Merchants here have in some instances been able to induce our manufacturers to build vehicles that would meet the demand, and in such cases both the merchant and the manufacturer have profited.

The vehicle that has a large sale is known as the four-wheel, four and six-seat, extension-top barouche, and is called here the "handy carriage." This vehicle is built on the same lines as the one used in America; it has the same "track," but the seats are made not less than 6 inches wider. The Dutch people of this country want comfort, and, being large themselves, they want room.

The most popular vehicle for passengers, and one manufactured largely in this country, is a four-seat, extension-top, two-wheel cart, known as the "Cape cart," which sells for $400 up; the "cab cart," which has two wheels, two seats, and extension top, sells for $200 up. The Malays, who do about all the livery business, and the farmers near the town use these carts almost universally.

The American buggy of the piano-box style has made some friends and is making more, but it should be constructed so as to be very strong and durable. It seems to me that our park

wagons, three-spring wagons, and side-spring road wagons, all with tops, would sell well. Quite a number of regular express wagons with panel sides and canvas top are also sold.

Our manufacturers should meet the demand. and not try to send what is not wanted. The demand here will increase from year to year.

BICYCLES.

Perhaps no country, in proportion to its white population, does a larger business in bicycles than does South Africa. Here the bicycle is used not only by the whites, but also by the Malays.

Municipal authorities estimate that there are three thousand bicycles in Kimberly, or about one for every seven of the population. The imports from the United States in 1896 were £13,202 ($64,248), and the increase for 1897 is estimated at 171 per cent. All the English makes are sold here and several American. It is to be regretted that some very cheap bicycles have been imported from the United States, which has injured the trade. There being a lull in the demand, it was believed that a cheaper machine would find a market; but it was soon found that a cheap machine was not an economical one, and now only the best are in demand.

The duty on bicycles is 9 per cent. They sell here at about the same price as in the United States, with freight and duty added.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

The imports of agricultural implements into the ports of South Africa for 1897 were to the value of $525,827.70, of which the United States furnished $295,662.96. The figures speak for themselves. That the United States has much of the trade and with proper action can retain it, is unquestioned. That the demand will continue to increase cannot be doubted.

Although the country has much land that is arid, there are vast tracts of good ground, and the governments are building dams to hold the overflow in the rainy season; artesian wells are also being bored.

Present agricultural conditions are largely due to the fact that farmers here depend entirely upon black labor. American farmers produce more on 160 acres of land than African farmers

do on thousands, and in Africa a farmer is not satisfied with less than 1,000 acres. Of this extent he cultivates, say, 20 acres. The grass, that could be used for cattle and sheep when feed is scarce, is not cut. On the acres he cultivates he raises, say, oats, which are cut, straw and all, and for which he finds a ready market.

There should be openings for mowing machines, corn cultivators, grinders, and shellers, wheat-binders, potato-diggers, etc. Africa can raise as good wheat as any other country, and the government is now buying seed wheat and testing several kinds. A large number of small, cheap plows, both steel and cast, cutting from 7 to 14 inches, have been sold, and there is a demand for a light gang plow, the two small plows held together by an iron frame, with iron handles and no wheels.

The five-tooth cultivator is also in demand. I am of the opinion that hand corn-planters, hand seeders, disk harrows, and in time sweep corn-grinders will sell. One dealer said to me that he wanted for immediate delivery 100 feed-cutters and could not get them. Only the cheapest implements are purchased now, but in the future, when farmers farm as they should, the larger and better ones will find a place.

A few of the manufacturers of the United States have sent representatives, and the bulk of the implements have been sold from catalogue. Samples are worth more than catalogues. Many United States implements should be used here, and would be more efficient and better adapted for the work than those now employed.

Agricultural implements of all kinds are admitted free of duty. In the line of implements, as in all others, the market should be studied with the fact in mind that both England and Germany are good imitators, and that America must do all she can to keep this trade. Durable goods should be made, and although they may not be expensive and such as are used at home, in time the best will be wanted.

LUMBER.

Timber is a scarce article in this country, and must be imported. Not only boards, sticks, planks, sashes, doors, frames, and moldings, but wood-work partly manufactured, shaped, bent, but not finished, is in demand.

The total imports for 1897 was $4,003,299.00, of which the United States furnished $732,655.00.

FLOUR AND CEREALS.

The United States has the great bulk of the trade. Flour is received in bags weighing 200 pounds, or in barrels weighing 196 pounds, the former preferred. The quantity of flour consumed by the white population is the same per capita as in any ordinary community in America. The natives consume but little flour, corn being their principal food of cereal nature.

Most of the flour is made from wheat imported from the United States. There are about fifty mills in South Africa, with an average capacity of fifty barrels per day when in operation. The shipments from the United States have chiefly been via New York and San Francisco. Wheat from Australia would have been largely imported in 1897 if the crops had not failed. South America, only fifteen to sixteen days' voyage, has also sent wheat. Wheat and corn can be grown as well in Africa as elsewhere, if the farmers knew how to farm, but it will be many years before this country produces enough for home consumption; hence the supply must be foreign. Flour is worth today to the consumer 5 cents per pound; corn meal, 3 cents per pound; bread, per loaf of 4 pounds, 24 cents. With wheat at a lower price, the demand would be larger and imports greater.

Preference is given by the millers to numbers 1 and 2 hard wheat. They do not mix wheat, as do our millers in America. This they have yet to learn.

The great bulk of the wheat, flour, and corn imported has been sold through the export commission-houses of the United States. At this writing 2,000 bags of flour have been shipped into the interior, and over 4,000 bags of corn are to be sent to the Transvaal; three ships loaded with flour and wheat are now due at Delagoa bay, and one vessel, with 2,500 tons of wheat, is now unloading at this port, all from Portland, Oregon, and San Francisco, a voyage of eighty days.

England buys our wheat and converts it into flour for this market. Why should we not send this flour direct? Flour with glucose (flourine) will not sell.

There is no stock of wheat in the open market, all going to

the mills, and the supplies of American wheat to arrive are at a very high price. Quotations for California wheat in quantity are $7 per sack of 200 pounds. African corn is beginning to come in, and is selling at $2.62 per 100 pounds.

The duty on wheat and corn is 24 cents per 100 pounds, and on flour $1.25 per 100 pounds.

EGGS AND BUTTER.

The imports of eggs for 1897 through all the ports of South Africa, with the exception of Lourenço Marquez, amounted to 2,650,273, of which the United States furnished 252,468. The United States should have had a larger share. Eggs are selling today in Cape Town at 84 cents per dozen, and at higher rates in other parts of South Africa.

I cannot too strongly urge producers of the United States to give attention to this line. It must be understood that not until steamers with cooling chambers are employed can this trade be captured. If Australia can send eggs here, a voyage of thirty-one days, the United States can surely do the same. Eggs have been imported from our country without cooling chambers, and have arrived fresh, and with care in testing and packing can still be imported. Eggs must be what is known as "candle tested" and packed in clean boxes, with card-board fillers that have not come into contact with bad eggs or sawdust. A layer of clean straw between each filler would be desirable. Varnishing the eggs has proved the best preservative, but the varnish is at times affected by the damp of the vessel. If requested by buyers here, a sample case should be submitted, forwarded by way of fast steamers to England, and then by fast steamer to this port, in the cooling chambers. An instance has come to my attention where, if one case had been forwarded for sample (which was refused) and the eggs had arrived in good condition, an order for 3,000,000 eggs would have resulted. Americans do not like the idea of sending samples.

The figures of imports represent the minimum of what should be sent here. Owing to the excessive cost to the consumer, the consumption is small. At half the price, or 40 cents per dozen, the sales would be more than trebled.

The duty on eggs is 10 per cent.

The imports of butter into South Africa for the year 1897, with the exception of the port of Lourenço Marquez, were 4,146,320 pounds, of which about 9,000 pounds came from the United States.

If American producers and shippers had obtained information as to the demands of this country, much loss of trade would have been avoided. Large quantities of butter have been imported from America, but its preparation has been defective, and Danish butter has until recently been the most acceptable.

Butter from America has been colored a too deep yellow, has not been sufficiently worked to extract the milk and water, and has not been packed properly. Both Danish and American butter cross the equator, but the former, imported principally in tin boxes, will arrive sweeter and retain its flavor longer.

There is no reason why America should not have a share of this large trade, if the butter is properly prepared, colored a pale yellow (if at all), and shipped in steamers fitted with cooling chambers. Australia is thirty-one days by steamer and New York is about the same, and yet steamers from Australia bring butter, beef, and mutton to South Africa and continue to England, a distance of 7,000 miles from this port, with the route crossing the equator. It is true that Australian steamers have the advantage of return cargo, which American steamers would not, and liberal concessions are given them by the Government. Owing to the loss of cattle, the demand for butter in this country must continue for years. Shipments from Australia will now fall off and remain few from April to November.

MEATS.

If beef, and even mutton and pork, can be landed here at a price not too much in advance over that charged on goods delivered in England, the market is ours; but it must be borne in mind that Australia feeds 2,500,000 sheep; Tasmania, 1,500,000; New Zealand, 19,000,000, and that four cents per pound for mutton is considered a profitable price. While the United States may not be prepared to compete in mutton at present, it can in beef.

Packers of the United States should have fast refrigerator ships for this market, build their own cold storage here, and

send beef that when dressed will weigh from 700 to 900 pounds and mutton weighing from 40 to 50 pounds.

The United States has held the market in tinned meat, but Australia is making rapid encroachments. Imports of tinned and salted or cured meats from England are also of some magnitude, and much of this is of American production shipped to England and there cured and canned.

LARD.

The bulk of the lard from the United States is supplied by only a very few of our producers. It usually comes in tin boxes of from 2 to 20 pounds in weight, and is worth today to the consumer 20 cents per pound. I am of the opinion that the substitute known in the United States as cottolene, a product of cotton seed, would find a ready market, provided that it could sell at a price slightly lower than that of lard. The duty on lard is four cents per pound.

ILLUMINANTS.

There were 2,179,272 gallons of kerosene oil imported into South Africa in 1897 through ports of Natal, and 3,388,394 gallons through Cape Colony. This oil is imported in tin cans holding four gallons each, and has been sold to consumers at $1.25 per can.

Under usual conditions, this trade is ours. Paraffin wax to the amount of 1,165,385 pounds, stearin to the value of $6,108.02, and tallow to the value of $22,157.90 were also imported in 1897 from the United States. While much of this was used in the manufacture of candles, yet candles to the value of $400,420.21 were also imported from various countries, England furnishing the largest amount, Belgium coming second and the United States third. The question arises, Did not most of the material to produce candles come originally from the United States?

ALE AND BEER.

Ale and beer were imported into ports of Cape Colony and Natal in 1897 to the amount of 1,312,486 gallons, valued at $767,967.48. Through the same ports, in transit to other coun-

tries in the interior, there were sent 54,141 gallons, valued at $44,716.86. Of the imports consumed in Cape Colony and Natal the United States furnished 64,844 gallons. Of the imports in transit the United States supplied 28,796 gallons. The English stand first, the Germans second, and the United States third. American beer is fast growing in favor with the consumers.—*United States Consular Reports.*

THE END OF MAHDISM.

The British arms have just won a brilliant victory over the Mahdists in the Egyptian Soudan. Omdurman has fallen into their power after a furious and bloody conflict, which ended in the complete rout of the forces of the Caliph.

The greatest honor is due General Kitchener, who commanded the Anglo-Egyptian forces and who had the direction of the conflict. The Mahdists defended themselves with heroism and boldness natural to these proud soldiers of the desert. The Anglo-Egyptian troops, although fewer, did not show less tenacity and courage. Superiority of tactics and equipment accomplished the rest. The caliph of Omdurman has fled; his standards and treasures are in the hands of the English—everything, in a word, allows us to hope that his power is at an end.

Thus, after thirteen years of expectation and preparation, conducted with consummate ability, England has avenged the murder of Gordon at Khartoum and the cruel loss then inflicted upon British influence on the banks of the Nile. But the expedition which has been marked with such brilliant success apparently was not undertaken with the sole aim of avenging this death and loss. England's purpose was higher and more remote. The acknowledged aim which they pursued, and which now appears to have been attained, was to restore to Egypt the equatorial provinces, to assure herself, with the Khedive as intermediary, of the satisfactory domination of these immense territories, the reservoir and at the same time the outlet of the delta, and the grand portal of Central Africa.

At present they are occupied in London with the organization of these immense domains where the influence of the Mahdi extended, and which are to return to the nominal domination of

Egypt. This is not an affair of a few days, although the semi-barbarous populations concerned are not in condition to make any sort of resistance to a power preparing so effective means of action.

Now that the mysterious Mahdist citadel has just fallen into the hands of the Anglo-Egyptian troops, it is opportune to recall under what dramatic circumstances Khartoum was taken thirteen years ago by the Dervishes and how Gordon Pasha, betrayed by several of his officers, had been basely assassinated several hours before the arrival of the Wolseley expedition, sent to the aid of that valiant British officer.

It was in January, 1885. At this time the city, besieged on every side by the troops of the Mahdi, was a prey to famine. Despite the privations and tortures of hunger, the valiant little Egyptian garrison commanded by Gordon would have coped with the besiegers up to the arrival of reinforcements sent under the order of General Wolseley, but the defection of Faraz Pasha, d'Ahmed Bey, d'Ali Gebal, and d'Hassan-el-Bagnischaoul, who had for several days engaged in correspondence with the false prophet, rendered the situation desperate and precipitated the fall of the place.

Warned by traitors of the approach of the Wolseley expedition, the Soudanese to the number of 25,000 and under the command of the chief, Walad-el-Nogou, advanced during the night up to the stripped ramparts and filled the ditches. At daybreak they invaded the city, shrieking and massacring all those in their way.

When Gordon, awakened by his soldiers, attempted with his troops to raise barricades around the palace, all resistance had become impossible. Surrounded by enemies, the general killed many of them by his own hand, but soon the heroic soldier succumbed to numbers. His head was cut off, and this mournful trophy, after having been placed before the eyes of Slatin Pasha and some European survivors, was carried triumphantly to the Mahdi. When, several hours later, the false prophet entered Khartoum, he had all the officers who betrayed Gordon put to death and all the women of the city sold as slaves. At this moment a line of smoke appeared in the distance over the Nile. It was the ships of Wolseley's expedition, which came at full speed. Alas, it was too late!

With the fall of Khartoum, the abandonment of the Soudan by Wolseley's troops, and the retreat of General Graham from Suakim, the immense region between Wady-Halfa, the Red sea, and the sources of the Nile fell back into barbarism. For several years one heard the Mahdist power no longer mentioned, and it was not until 1891 and 1893 that Father Ohrwalder and Slatin Pasha, for a long time held in captivity at Omdurman, came, after having broken their chains, to relate at Cairo what had occurred at the confluence of the White Nile and the Blue Nile.

As for the Mahdists, having obtained complete mastery of the country, they were so bold as to threaten the Egyptian frontiers on the side of Suakim and Wady-Halfa. In 1888 an expedition had to be undertaken against Osman Digna, on the borders of the Red sea. In 1889 the Sirdar Grenfell had to pursue the Dervishes from the side of Yoski. Finally, in 1891, it was necessary to drive them again to the other side of Tokar and Afafit.

We know under what conditions the actual expedition, which has just terminated under the walls of Omdurman, was undertaken. The incursions of the new Mahdi, Abdullah-Ben-Mohammed, having been considered as a constant menace to the khedival government, the cabinet at Cairo, in accordance with that at London, decided two years ago to relieve forever the Egyptian Soudan of the presence of the Dervishes. Since the spring of 1896 Akacheh, Firket, Dongola, Abou-Hamed, Nakeilah, and Berber have been the successive halting places of this campaign, happily conducted by the Sirdar, Sir Herbert Kitchener.

Now that the Anglo-Egyptian colors float victoriously over the ramparts of Omdurman and Khartoum, the reconquest of the Soudan can be considered as ended. The warlike bands of Abdullah, these bands which are noted for so many massacres, have been driven from the side of Darfour and Kordofan, and they will no longer prevent the development of commerce and civilization on the borders of the Nile.

Fourteen years ago Obdurman was only a miserable village, comprising a few huts, and fortified by Gordon to repel the attacks of the Mahdists. It was defended only by a feeble garrison under command of Faragallu, and had not even cannons. Compelled to capitulate in January, 1885, the little place, instead

of submitting to the fate of Khartoum, its neighbor, which was reduced to ruins, became the general quarters of the Dervishes. They made a grand city, with numerous monuments and a citadel, considered by them as impregnable.

Built on the right bank of the Nile, facing the Isle Tuti and seven or eight miles of dismantled ramparts of Khartoum, situated on the other side of the river a little below the confluence of the White Nile and the Blue Nile, the city around which the decisive battle between the Dervishes and the Anglo-Egyptians took place, covers a surface of eight by four kilometers.

It possesses palaces, barracks, arsenals, and an edifice which surpasses all others, the tomb of the false prophet Mohammed Ahmed. This is a pretentious edifice, 70 feet high altogether, which first attracted the attention of Gordon, nephew of the hero of Khartoum, when he went with the advance guard of Sirdar Kitchener to observe the surroundings of Omdurman. It had been erected under the guidance of the Caliph, less out of respect than because of personal vanity. It is a square edifice about 30 feet high. Each side measures 36 feet in length. The walls are more than 6 feet thick. They are built of cut stones brought from Khartoum at great expense. From these walls rises an hexagonal tower surmounted by a dome 40 feet high, which has been destroyed by the artillery of the Sirdar. Smaller domes rise from the four corners of the edifice. Ten large openings and two entrances admit light to the interior. The hexagonal part is, moreover, furnished with dormer windows. The monument from top to bottom has been painted. A trellised hedge prevents the crowd from approaching the holy place. Windows, doors, and trellis are the work of men from the arsenal at Khartoum. Inside there is a wooden sarcophagus covered with black drapery. Candelabra stand at the four corners of the monument. In the center of the dome is fastened an immense chandelier which came from the palace of the government at Khartoum. Brilliant paintings adorn the walls. On the dome were fastened three empty balls of copper and a lance directed toward the sky as a lightning conductor. This warlike apparel signifies that the Caliph has decided to engage in a conflict with the heavens on the day that it ceases to grant his prayers. This way of taking Allah by storm indicates truly a warlike soul. Unfortunately for him this procedure has not

given success to the Mahdi's successor; it is even probable that the lance and the copper balls in question have been destroyed just as the dome itself has, by the powerful projectiles of the Anglo-Egyptian artillery.

Protected by the wall of a mud enclosure, by 12 forts of recent construction, and by numerous works raised on the plain to the north, the place was really well defended. With a population of about 400,000 souls, including 50,000 to 60,000 combatants, the Caliph Abdullah thought he could cope with 25,000 Anglo-Egyptians commanded by Sirdar Kitchener. He thought he could, even without peril, make a sortie on the north into the region extending to the west of Shamba and Wady-Shamba, but he had not counted on the formidable military equipment of the assailants and their admirable organization.

Everything is to be admired in this campaign of the Soudan, undertaken and carried out with so much intelligence, care, science, punctuality, and success. Competent specialists declare that never was a colonial campaign conducted with such brilliancy. Certainly we are in nowise ignorant of the fact that England awaited for years the moment to avenge the death of Gordon, and that this expedition of the Upper Nile had been the object in the war department of very serious study in order that no chance of success might be neglected or forgotten. Surely General Herbert Kitchener worked in regions the topography of which he well knew and of which he himself had drawn the charts.

There should be wise plans for a campaign, as for all human affairs, but even then the last word belongs to destiny. When this campaign was studied in the war bureaus twelve years ago one could not foresee that the Dervishes would abandon Khartoum to go toward the Red sea, and that the best lieutenants of the Caliph would be killed at Atbara.

One could not calculate upon the development of the defenses of Omdurman, the negligence of the Dervishes in connection with the fortress of Khartoum, and also with the protection of the belt formed by the confluence of the Blue Nile and the White Nile. A number of details which in their application might have seriously modified the plans of the general-in-chief escaped the foresight of the Sirdar, and those which the enemy controlled were not always known with precision; but it seems that in this

marvelous campaign the almost impossible was foreseen, for the mistakes have been each time repaired with an unprecedented good fortune. Finally, one can say without exaggerating anything, that four months ago, after the victory of Atbara, the plan of campaign almost entirely was to begin again. In reality, the Sirdar undertook again the reconquest of the Soudan, and set about it the moment after he returned to England to confer with the war department about the reinforcements which he would be permitted to draw from the garrisons of Malta and Gibraltar.

This English campaign suggests important comparisons. The capture of Khartoum was arranged and decided with a wisdom and success which the French have not had either in the Madagascar expedition or in that of Tonkin or in the pursuit through Tunis of the evasive Touaregs. These comparisons will give to the march of the Sirdar to Khartoum its just value from a military point of view.

From other standpoints this expedition marks considerable progress over the majority of previous expeditions. This time the management has been what was expected. From the first to the last day the soldiers have been in want of nothing, neither provisions nor ammunition. The register of the halting places was so well regulated that the Sirdar gained almost 48 hours on the anticipated delays, and he despatched the news of his victory at the moment when it was even doubted if he had yet encountered the enemy, and his auxiliary service had so organized telegraphic communications through the Soudan that a battle finished at Omdurman Friday evening near four o'clock was known in London Saturday afternoon.

Only one battle was sufficient. It was decisive and comparatively short, full, however, of wonderful deeds which reflect the highest honor upon the British army. The charge of the 21st Lancers is a deed of war without an equal. It was a question of cutting off the retreat of the bands of Dervishes which left the line of battle and attempted to reach Omdurman, either with the hope of there finding a temporary refuge and rallying with the troops which still obeyed the Caliph and his son or to attempt a diversion on the right of the Anglo-Egyptian army. Colonel Martin receives the order of the Sirdar and forms his squadrons. They gallop off. The Dervishes appear on the crest of a hill. The Lancers speadily ascend. There the scene changes. Back

of this band of apparently two or three hundred men file all the reserves of the Dervishes, and the English cavaliers unexpectedly find themselves in the presence of twelve ranks of combatants, forming a mass of about ten thousand men. Nevertheless the charge is made. When the enemy's ranks had been broken the regiment reforms itself as if on parade, and the soldiers themselves claim the glory of charging again upon the enemy; but Colonel Martin counts his losses. Six of his officers have fallen. The ranks are thinned. He orders his men to lie on the ground, and he finishes routing the Dervishes by firing.

The Anglo-Egyptian army has deserved its victory, and this is everything to say at such a time. The English brigade has given proof of its valor, at the same time disciplined and impetuous, which is the great military virtue of its race. The charge of the regiment of Lancers, which made a bloody road through the masses of Dervishes, will remain as glorious as the great charge of cavalry at Balaklava. Mahdism is only a memory.—*Le Mouvement.*

ITEMS.

Twin Iniquities.—The discussion precipitated by the refusal of the Afro-American council at Rochester to admit my friend, Hon. John H. Smyth, to membership in that body because he could not subscribe to the conditions of membership, which require that one must believe in mixed marriages and mixed schools, is perhaps the best thing that could have happened at this time, in that it has brought to light the real views on these questions of gentlemen who are described interchangeably as Afro-Americans and Negroes. Personally I can have no grievance against any man of the race who calls himself an Afro-American who favors mixed marriages. I am honestly opposed to this iniquity, and I do not believe that any considerable number of respectable black men and women want any such nonsense. Nothing that the so-called Afro-American council can do will ever popularize this one of its pet schemes for solving the problem. The best class of white women do not seek matrimonial alliances with black men or yellow men who have Negro blood in their veins. The great majority of such unions consist for the most part of Negro men and Irish, English, German, and Scotch women of the lower or middle class. Few of these women possess even an ordinary education. I am told that there is quite a colony of these people in Chicago. There is

quite a colony in this city and in New York city, and I presume there are other cities that have them. The problem is still unsolved, as none of them, so far as I have been able to learn, have succeeded in breaking their way into the social life of the best class of white people. They don't want them, and won't have them. So far as the question of white men outraging colored girls is concerned, it may be that that is not a good argument in favor of mixed marriages. The way to prevent the outraging of Negro women by white men is to shoot one or more dozens of them, as white men shoot or lynch Negroes who outrage their women, so as to make that pastime unfashionable. To marry our women off to white men, provided, of course, white men would marry them, would be to compromise black men and insult black women.

The home circle of the Negro race is the place to teach our young women the duty they owe to themselves and to their race. I see no good reason why these excellent and well-meaning gentlemen of the council should seek to destroy the race type by encouraging our men to marry poor and sometimes ignorant Irish, English, German, and Scotch women and our women to marry white libertines, native and foreign. But there is no danger, present or remote, of the popularization of this brilliant idea for solving the problem. It may give hope to its projectors and furnish them food for thought in their sociological excursions, but the race en masse will not know that they are on earth save when they hold a conference to compare notes and issue a pronunciamento in favor of absorption. There is no power on earth that can bring to a realization the idle dreams of these delightful theorists and discoverers of the most recent mare's nest. Just as soon as strawberries begin to grow on apple trees and shoats begin to lay hen eggs, we may confidently look for this thing of which the scholars and thinkers of the race have prophesied, and which has made them bald-headed and pessimistic while waiting for its fulfillment.

On the question of mixed schools I also have a few notions. The mixed schools in the North is a fact in spots. These schools in the future, as many of them are now, will be taught by white teachers. All the best pickings will go to this race. Here and there I hear of a colored teacher in a mixed school, but they are as rare as peaches in January. Mixed schools won't go in the South, and I reckon it is well, for if they did the Negro school teachers would have a very poor showing at the hands of school boards.

I remember when in Baltimore a few years ago that all or nearly all the Negro schools in that city had white teachers, some of whom refused to recognize their pupils on the street. These teachers were the political dependents of the Gormans and Rasins *et al.* of the Maryland Democracy. I am in favor of separate schools when taught by competent Negro men or women, and I believe that we have a good many thousands of such teachers all over the country. I don't believe that a Negro child has nearly as much respect for and interest in his race who is taught in a

mixed school to deify the white race at the expense of his own race as he would have if taught in a Negro school. He grows up to manhood as ignorant of the Negro and his history—his knowledge of which is only fragmentary—as the white boy. After he has arrived at manhood he discovers that he has reached the end of the social equality of the schoolroom, and that, like Pactolus Prime, he is "only a nigger." The white boy goes into a bank as clerk or cashier; the colored boy is lucky if he can get a job as messenger or porter in the same bank or some other. The white girl marries a millionaire, and her colored schoolmate acts as her maid or seamstress or cook. This is my present knowledge of the result of mixed schools. Of course, the council may have a plan to change all this in the future. I believe in my race and in its future, and in those who are loyally endeavoring to raise it up to the highest plane of excellence and usefulness. I don't believe in mixed marriages or mixed schools, or that the Negro is inferior to the white race, because, with Disraeli, he believes that "race is the key to history," just the same as the Anglo-Saxon does.—*John J. E. Bruce.*

Africa in 1897.—The above is the title of an article by Dr. R. N. Cust, published in the *Asiatic Quarterly Review*, and in which the writer reviews the position of Africa since the scramble for it by the European powers commenced about twenty years ago. Dr. Cust makes the following observations in regard to the acquisition of territory in Africa by the European nations:

"In some cases, indeed, the wrongful occupation of territory dates back to the beginning of the century, but the most striking instances of attack and annexation have occurred at a much more recent date. Among the most active aggressors are Great Britain, Germany, France, Italy, and Belgium. The possessors of African territory of an earlier date are Spain, Portugal, and Holland."

In regard to the results of such occupation he offers the following very pertinent remarks:

"The gang of slave dealers has, indeed, been reduced to small proportions, and may probably be entirely crushed, but its place has been taken by the merchant of alcoholic liquors and of warlike stores. The destruction, accordingly, of Africans has been increased rather than diminished. Some geographical explorers have passed across the continent killing men and burning villages. Can it be that a chartered company only hopes to pay its dividends by the slaughter of natives and the spoliation of their property in cattle or land?"

He divides the continent into the geographic portions of North Africa, South Africa, East Africa, and West Africa, and summarizes the present political condition of each region. In his political summary Dr. Cust makes the following pertinent suggestions in regard to the British occupation of Egypt:

"Its circumstances present one of the great problems of the future. It

seems madness on our part to retain such a dangerous protectorate. It was well to give it a decade of good administration and develop its latent resources, but this has now been done, and well done. I made a careful inspection of the whole province in 1885 from the point of view of an Indian administrator. In my humble opinion, the time has come to treat it like Belgium, and place it under the protection of the great powers as an independent kingdom, with its present dynasty, the Suez canal being neutral and open to all. No European power can hold it with absolute safety, as it is too small to be called to bear the burden of an occupying army, and is exposed to attacks on every side—from the Mediterranean on the north, the Red sea on the east, the desert on the west, and the Upper Nile valley on the south."

As might be expected, Dr. Cust has no good word for the Chartered South African Company, whose deeds of aggression, oppression, and savage cruelty to the natives have recently come with such impressive prominence before the world. He says:

"The discovery of diamond mines in Bechuana Land led to a northern extension of Cape Colony, and in the last few years the Chartered South African Company has, in what I consider to be a most unprincipled manner, occupied the regions of Matabele Land and Mashona Land, extending practically the dominion of Great Britain from the Cape of Good Hope up to the river Zambesi. The circumstances connected with the invasion of a distant country by a dividend-paying company, the slaughter of unoffending natives, the confiscation of their cattle, lands, and gold mines by adventurers 'the riff-raff of the British population,' as they were described by a colonial secretary of state, are too well known to need repetition in this summary. Emboldened by success against Lobengula, who was hunted to death, the leaders of the movement, Messrs. Rhodes and Jameson, attempted to play the same game against the Republic of the Transvaal, but the Boers were too many for them, and the whole policy has been exposed with all its lust for gold, the hunger for land, and the contempt for black human life. In British annals no more discreditable incident has been recorded."

On completing his political survey Dr. Cust makes the following comment in regard to the racial and ethnological problem created by the force of European influence brought to bear upon Africa:

"This great continent, compact in form and accessible to the ocean on every side, with vast navagible rivers, may be said roughly, and inclusive of its adjacent islands, to comprise eleven millions of square miles, its population amounts to one hundred and thirty millions, and this is a minimum calculation. We cannot kill this population as we have elsewhere and replace it by the riff-raff surplus of European nations, even if we wished to do so; we may accept as a fact that the Negro and Bantu races are made of such stuff that no amount of cruel persecution, continued for centuries, will suffice to exterminate them. It is the fashion to talk of the Negro as a hopeless savage. In an off-hand way some speak of the

great people of British India, amounting to three hundred millions, in the same airy way; but those who know them well are of opinion that the Hindoo and Negro are quite able to hold their own against the Latin and Teutonic races, if they get their chance.

"This population, both in India and Africa, can live and propagate their race in yearly increasing millions in a climate and in a social environment under which the European will surely succumb. The same power that fashioned the features of the region has created the population suitable to inhabit it. If wisdom and benevolence, and not selfish chauvinism, united with low earth greed, had guided the councils of European statesmen, they would have devised plans which would be to the advantage of the indigenous population and not to that of the reckless and penniless adventurers."

Yes; *it is* the fashion to talk of the Negro as "a hopeless savage," but it is "selfish chauvinism" alone which has inspired the notion. But when the councils of Europe become imbued with wisdom and sagacity in dealing with the African over whom they have assumed to rule, and with a sincere desire to make that rule a beneficent one and profitable to the rulers, it will be discovered that instead of being the "hopeless savage" which he is now represented to be, the Negro is one whose character, temper, and habits are worthy of emulation, if true happiness is the aim of life.

On the moral of the political picture portrayed by him, Dr. Cust speaks out with a fearless candor and bold impartiality, in which is exhibited that highest ideal of the English character, which always commands admiration and which constitutes the real basis of the power and influence of the British people. He says:

"What is the moral of this discreditable game of grab which the three great nations of Europe (France, Germany, and Great Britain) have been playing at the expense of the unhappy African, Semites, Hamites, Negro, Bantu, and Hottentot-Bushmen? Attila and Genghis Khan could not have done worse than these nominal Christian states. Murder, confiscation, and rapine have been the results. Deception and diplomacy have been the machinery. Lust of land and gold have been the motive power.

"What a mockery it seems with one hand to stop the deportation of slaves and with the other to introduce millions of casks of alcoholic liquors! One missionary reports his landing from a ship with ten thousand gallons of alcohol. Lord Salisbury is credited with the assertion that the settlement of religious missionary bodies in a region to which they had come to preach the Gospel helped to make up the proof of the occupation of the region which was required to justify a claim to its sovereignty! Treaties were made by missionaries, scientific explorers, designing speculators; and the chief who put his mark to a treaty knew not what he was doing. The brandy bottle was placed generally by his side and the pen put in his hand, he often in ignorance assigning the same lands to rival adventurers.

"Throughout there was an utter neglect of the interests of the unhappy population. They were to be saved, indeed, from deportation across the Atlantic to a country in which men of the same blood have developed into nine millions of freedmen (citizens of the United States of North America) in a stage of European culture. They were to remain at home and be slaves there, to see their lands and cattle confiscated, their villages destroyed, their chieftains, like poor Bushiri, hung by the Germans, their women, as in the Cameroons, flogged by the "most cultured" Europeans, or worse. The missionaries of different churches and denominations flock in and become a portion of the conquering race. One missionary near Lake Nyassa is said to have actually hanged a man; another missionary near Victoria Nyanza to have burned a village. Some sections of Christians actually wage war with other sections. Things are done which would be deemed to be impossible out of pandemonium; and yet this is complacently described as the advance of civilization and Christianity.

"There are still a few unoccupied regions, notably Wadai and Kanem, in the eastern Sahara. Thousands of square miles have never had any effectual occupation, but the words "sphere of influence" and "hinterland" are delightfully elastic. The unhappy Portuguese had nominal possession of a vast region under a treaty made by the Emperor of Monomotapa in 1630 A. D., but they had maintained no "effectual occupation," and when the South African Company began to lust for Mashonaland the claims of Portugal were rejected with scorn, and perhaps rightly so, for they had lost their opportunity, as the day of Spain and of the empires of Rome and Turkey passed away, and as the empire of Great Britain may before long pass away, unless it reverts to those principles of righteousness which alone give permanence to a rule."—*The Lagos Weekly Record.*

The Ninth Annual Government Competitive Exhibition, Lagos, West Coast of Africa.—The ninth annual Government competitive exhibition of the schools in the colony took place on Saturday morning last at the Glover Memorial hall, presided over by his excellency Lieut. Col. H. E. McCallum, R. E., C. M. G.

The exhibition was formally opened at 8.15 a. m. precisely.

His honor Chief Justice Rayner opened the proceedings with a brief but most interesting and impressive address, and observed that the quantity and quality of the exhibits on the occasion were both very much greater and far superior to what he had witnessed in the past. Other important sentiments were given utterance to by his honor, which all went to encourage the scholars and teachers who had taken an active part in the exhibition.

His excellency the governor in opening the exhibition spoke in a praiseworthy manner of the arrangements of the hall. It was the first at which he was present, and he was very thankful to learn from the ob-

servations of the Chief Justice that the quantity of exhibits was far larger than on previous occasions, and that the number of schools competing had increased. He had seen the exhibits himself and was gratified at the manner some of the works exhibited were done, but he had noticed some that left much room for improvement.

Plain Sewing.—Upon this subject his excellency the governor was of opinion that excellent in their own way as were several of the exhibits, yet many of them had the drawback that they presented more the feature of ornamental sewing than plain sewing, which was what was wanted and provided for by the committee's plan and which also was more suitable for the scholars, not leaving room for that vanity which such an ornamental sewing as was exhibited was calculated to foster in young girls. The need was more for what was useful and what girls will in after life need more commonly than for what was simply ornamental and pretty.

It would give him, he remarked, greater pleasure to see that the sewing competition take place next year within the hall and in the presence of judges. This would be more satisfactory.

Handwriting.—His Excellency in his remarks expressed satisfaction with this subject, and especially as it had been said that the exhibits showed an improved state of writing in the schools. Ornamental penmanship was not, in his opinion, a subject of an immediate and urgent need for the pupils and might well be out of the list of subjects for competition.

Drawing.—His Excellency expressed himself greatly disappointed and remarked upon the want of a proper knowledge of this subject. An instance of the base of a cooler drawn in a straight line, instead of curved, convinced the President that the subject had not been understood or properly taught.

Map-drawing.—This, though excellent in its way, had a drawback which His Excellency, as an experienced one on the subject in his former capacity of surveyor general for twenty years, could not have failed to observe. There was not much information to be gained from the maps exhibited, while there had been too much coloring put on. He suggested that instead of coloring the maps that may be drawn, the pupils should use only ink to delineate the marks indicating rivers, seas, lakes, etc.

His Excellency remarking on shorthand stated that it was a subject he much desired should engage the attention of the schools and be taught widely in the colony. He expressed a hope that the time was not far distant when the present generation of literary young men would be able to write in shorthand generally and make it a common means of communication.

With reference to industrial education, His Excellency remarked upon its great importance and the country's great need of a larger and more extensive development of it. He kindly informed the assembly that he

had submitted to the Secretary of State a proposal and scheme for technical classes, through which, as he hoped, this development would be largely promoted.

He was pleased with some specimens of work exhibited and spoke with commendation of both a door and a wheelbarrow exhibited, which were among the exhibits from the Hussey Charity Institution, and observed that the production of such well-executed pieces of work by that institution showed that the Government subsidy granted it had been well spent. His Excellency, upon this subject, observed that Lagos would be stronger if more attention were given to both it and horticulture and other kindred pursuits in preference to clerkships, for which alone young men of Lagos seem to care, especially as Lagos did not need a superabundance of scribes, and it could no longer depend for its trade upon palm oil and palm kernels, which have fallen low in the markets already.

It would be a great day for Lagos, he observed, when the pursuit of agriculture would engage the interest, attention, and energy of our young men. His Excellency also remarked upon the extreme lowness of school fees paid in the colony and upon the necessity and desirability of making the teaching profession more remunerative than it is at present, and that while the Government is willing to give every reasonable help, parents whose duty it is to provide for the education of those whom they have been the means of bringing into the world should be willing and ready to do their part, and this liberally, too.

In the course of his remarks His Excellency dwelt also upon the desirability of cookery being connected with the education of the schools, as a practical knowledge of it would go a great way to prepare a girl for her future home and enable her to contribute much to make it comfortable for both herself and her husband, especially if along with this she is taught in a general way to do things nicely.—*The Lagos Echo.*

The Coming African Conference.—More than a dozen years have passed since an international conference met at Berlin to consider a number of questions of supreme interest to the great European powers engaged in opening up Africa, and some half-dozen years have elapsed since the meeting of the supplementary conference at Brussels. The revision of the "acts" of these conferences from time to time was contemplated, and from several quarters here and elsewhere, but especially here, have come requests to the chief parties to the Brussels act to call a further conference to deal with matters passed over or imperfectly considered at Berlin and Brussels. * * * There is reason to believe that steps are being taken to insure a reconsideration and revision of some of the provisions of the general acts of the Brussels conference least likely to arouse national jealousies. It is of little consequence whether the initiative has come from the Belgian government, with or without the prompting of our government, it is to be hoped that if not all the seventeen powers

parties to the arrangement, at all events the half-dozen most directly concerned in the welfare of Africa, will recognize the propriety of the step, provided the programme be reasonably limited. That the programme can include only a tithe of the questions which have arisen since the conferences of Berlin and Brussels is certain. * * * There now prevails an impression that at the first of the two conferences the influence of Prince Bismarck was too predominant; that at the second our representative was too passive; that too much was expected from the Congo State; that many questions which might with advantage have been defined were either passed over or left in obscurity, and that the net results were, in the main, so many barren *pia vota.* * * *

As to one limited subject discussed at Brussels there is no need for delay. By the 92d article of the Acte General of the Brussels conference the powers with possessions or protectorates in the zone not subject to the regime of prohibition bound themselves to impose on alcohol an import duty of not less than 15 francs a hectoliter for the first three years, which might be raised at the end of that period to 25 francs. At the expiration of the sixth year—that is, next April—there may be a revision of the minimum duty. Unless something is then done, each power, it is to be presumed, will be free to act as it likes. * * * There is the prospect that at no distant date the question will be considered in an international conference, in which it will be discussed with ampler knowledge than has been hitherto available. No doubt it will be urged, as it was by our representative at Brussels, that the existing minimum is useless as a check on consumption. It may be recollected that our representative at the conference was instructed to propose a duty which would have been about 10s. a gallon, instead of that actually adopted, which is less than a tenth of our suggested minimum. It is some satisfaction to think that we have, on the whole, been as good as our professions, and that the severest scrutiny of the conduct of our colonial administration is not likely to bring to light anything to the disadvantage or discredit of England. Mr. Chamberlain has uniformly been disposed to favor stringent measures as to the liquor traffic in our possessions in West Africa, a position which will doubtless be maintained in the forthcoming conference.—*London Times.*

Report of the Registrar General of Lagos for the Year 1897.—We have before us a copy of the general abstract of registration of births, marriages, deaths, instruments affecting lands, alien children, etc., for the year 1897, from which we gather a few facts which we deem would be of interest to our readers. The population of the town for the purposes of the abstract is assumed to be the same as at the last census in 1891, viz., 32,508, when the number of Europeans was 150; but it is mentioned that there has been a large increase in the native population since, and that 50,000 would be a nearer estimate of the population at the present time, of which the resident European population would be about

250. The births registered in 1897 are male, 841; female, 820; a total of 1,661, as against 1,545 in 1896. Although the number of births each year is steadily increasing, as shown by statistics since 1892, yet the number of deaths still continue to exceed the births—last year by 265. The total number of deaths registered is 1,926 as against 1,702 in 1896. This gives the enormous death rate of 59 per thousand as against an average death rate in England of 19.14 per thousand for the ten years, 1881–1890, and against 52 per thousand here in 1896. This represents an alarming rate of mortality and is a forcible commentary on the remarks—written before we received this report—which appeared in our last issue on the necessity for a stricter observance of sanitary regulations in the town.

Among the principal causes of death among the native population fever comes first with 478 victims, lung diseases claim 408, then follow diarrhœa, dysentery, convulsions, and rheumatism. Convulsions and lung diseases both show the large increase of 63 over the preceding year. Infant mortality has been, as usual, very heavy, 752 deaths being reported of children under 1 year of age and 194 of children under 5 years, making a total of 946 as against 762 in 1896, an increase of 184. Of still-born births there were registered 126, and 16 deaths from child-birth. Ten cases of drowning are reported.

The deaths among the European population number 23, as against 28 in 1896. The worst month for mortality among Europeans was July, when 6 deaths occurred, while there were 3 in March and April and 2 in February, November, and December respectively. Among the Kroo population we notice that the death rate has considerably decreased, the number being 39, as against 66 in the previous year. We had occasion to call attention some time ago to the improper housing of this hard-working and very necessary portion of the population, and we believe that this reduced death rate is due to improved conditions in this respect.

Marriages in Christian places of worship, notwithstanding all that has been advanced against it, continue to increase. The report shows 56, an increase of 7 over the previous year. The community evidently do not favor marriages celebrated at the registry office, for, as in preceding years, there have been no such marriages reported.

We close this brief notice of the report with the following summary of the work done at the registry during the year: Births registered, 1,661; deaths, 1,926; marriages, 56; instruments affecting lands registered, 265; ditto for stamp duties, 357; alien children registered, 214; removals of ditto, 298; transfer of ditto, 34; certified copies of entries in registers, 16. The office continues to pay expenses and even to show a credit balance, the receipts for the year having amounted to £345 2s. 6d. and the salaries to £308 4s. 6d., a balance in favor of the office of £36 18s.—*The Lagos Echo.*

British Rule in Africa.—A review of the British system of rule in Africa is not out of place at a time when so much trouble has been

brewed and is still brewing in those portions of Africa over which British rule is exercised. Events are conspiring to show that while British methods of rule in Africa have apparently been most successful, there exists in those methods certain elements or features which make against permanent success. It falls to the province of the intelligent native to point out what he believes to be the defects of a system of rule imposed on a large number of his people and any misapplication of which must involve disaster to his people and country. British rule in West Africa had been hitherto restricted to certain points in the littoral without being made to affect the great body of the people inhabiting the hinterland, and as a consequence the adaptability or otherwise of the methods of rule employed has not been fairly tested on the people as a whole, since its effects or results at the few and restricted points on the coast where it had been introduced were liable to be counteracted or neutralized by the large influence exerted by their environment. The scramble for Africa by the European powers has led to an expansion of British rule to the hinterlands, and although the time since which this has taken place has been short, it has been sufficient to enable the intelligent native to observe the effect which the new condition of things is likely to produce on his people. It may be stated shortly that the great defect of British system of rule is the tendency to extinguish indigenous systems and methods and regulate everything on the Anglo-Saxon principle. The deep-seated prejudice in the Anglo-Saxon character which imagines that his methods are the best and the best suited to everybody is what constitutes the great drawback to successful British rule in Africa.

Influenced by the idea that native systems are inferior and ineffective, the expansion of British rule to the hinterlands has been on the plan of extinguishing native systems and institutions of all kinds. The deportation of King Jaja, Chief Nana, the King of Benin, and King Prempeh of Ashanti, all constitute sequences of a plan to obliterate native authority of all kinds, and where the native rulers are not deported they have been purposely and effectually disgraced in the eyes of their people. The result of this plan is a breaking up of the whole system of government and social regulation and the introduction of a condition of lawlessness and disorder. It is the dire effects produced in this wise, and which obviously can never conduce to the progress and well-being of the country, which is arresting the attention and causing serious anxiety to those who desire to see British rule established on a permanent basis in the country. The present policy succeeds in obliterating the existing systems while it substitutes nothing, instead bringing about a disorganization which is inimical to material and moral interests generally. It is this serious defect in the system of British rule in Africa which requires to be corrected in order to render such rule efficacious. The native systems, instead of being obliterated, should be upheld and utilized, and thus made to improve. It is impossible for the systems of Europe to be made adaptable to Africa, and the unwholesome results witnessed in the coast

colonies ought to suffice to show that any wholesale application of the experiment must end in disaster to the whole country. The displacement of native authority has produced political, social, and industrial chaos, and in all parts of the country the native, instead of pursuing the even tenor of his life, has become apprehensive and restless and extremely distrustful as regards the future; and, what is more, the removal of all effective control has generated a degree of license which is rapidly developing into a state of general demoralization. These effects are operating, although at present they show no perceptible sign, and the matter is all the more serious since it is the untutored mind which is being operated upon and which has hitherto only been held in check by a strong system of native government. The only remedy is to reverse the policy hitherto adopted and utilize the native systems, which are the only means of effective government in Africa; and permanency and success can only be assured to British rule in Africa when it is regulated on the plan of recognizing and utilizing native systems of government.—*The Lagos Weekly Record.*

Bishop Hartzell has been interviewed. He is aiming to plant a public school system, the British South Africa Company, through Cecil Rhodes and Earl Gray, pledging him support. He is reported to have said as follows:

"I am commencing this work in the little Republic of Liberia. Already, under the fostering care of our church, a college has been established at Monrovia, in West Africa, which has 150 scholars enrolled under the control of a faculty of five. Professor A. P. Camphor, a black man educated in this country, is at the head of this institution. It is my purpose to begin at the foundation, establishing first the primary school, and in a short time I hope to have two thousand pupils under the charge of competent teachers sent from the United States. My project also includes the establishment of industrial schools in Liberia. The British Chartered Company of Eastern Africa has deeded to us large tracts of land and buildings suitable for the extension of our work in that section. In fact, everywhere in the Dark Continent I am meeting not only with a cordial reception, but the most substantial aid. Englishmen on every hand coöperate with me in the endeavor to plant Anglo-Saxon civilization where barbarism has held sway for thousands of years."—*Northern Christian Advocate.*

Letter from Africa—More Sense and More Cents.—Sitting in the Methodist seminary at Monrovia and looking out over the sea, at six o'clock in the morning, it is a pleasure to write a few lines to the many readers of the *Journal.*

Before me, in the harbor, lazily roll the Liberian war vessel, a German and a Spanish steamer, and the burnt hull of an American fishing smack that went up in flames a few weeks ago. The roar of the surf has sounded

in my ears all the night. The morning beauty, with glowing sky, glistening sea, and white surging waves, all speak peace, harmony, and contentment. A fine spot, indeed, is this of Monrovia—nothing finer along the coast. No suspicion of disease and death lurks under nature's luring smile.

This smile, by the way, did not lure me to this spot yesterday; but a call from a sick fellow-worker in this field did. Two weeks ago this missionary came from a distant point in Liberia to consult me about resigning from the work on account of ill health. After a long consultation I reached the conclusion that it was not the climate, but overwork, that had caused the break-down, and this gave me the text for my present letter.

The climate here has been blamed for many things for which it is entirely innocent. Many a missionary has died on this coast, and the climate has been charged with his death, where, if the truth were known, work or overwork would be found the true cause of his death. It is true undue exposure to the sun or rain or night air will carry a man to the grave in this tropical climate faster than the same exposure in a frigid or temperate zone, and it is equally true that a tropical climate is not as healthy for a white man as the zone in which he was born, and it is also true that the quinine bottle is always as handy of reach as the average smelling salts bottle at home, yet the fact remains that if one lives at these tropics as he ought to live, the chances are that he will live much longer than the workers who came out years before.

More sense and more cents have both helped to make life last longer in the missionary work on the west coast, and just in proportion as sense and cents are used will the length of days be.

More sense has come from closer observation. Men are learning that they cannot do two or three persons' work here and stay above ground long enough to gloat over the fact. It is a tropical country, and that makes the difference. Workers are observing that they cannot rise early in the morning and work far into the night, as they did at home, scurrying, hurrying, and worrying about meeting many engagements, "getting there on time," rushing about when tired out, eating and sleeping as though that day was the last on earth. This means an early death, for this is a tropical country, and that makes the difference.

More cents have made it possible to add a few more animal comforts to a life none too easy at its best. The question is often asked why the white traders along the coast live longer than the white missionaries. In the first place, I do not grant its truth. Yet, admitting it to be so, it could be accounted for by the fact tha more cents are used in their actual living. All the foreign food money can buy, and of the best quality, home comforts without stint—luxuries even—all go to make the animal part of life last longer for the average trader, while the missionary lives largely on native "chop," because his check book will not allow such extravagances. Then, too, very frequent furloughs are taken, and longer

ones by the trader than the missionary could afford. Likewise the trader's cares and worries and work are all far less than the missionary's. He has all the help he needs, puts the law on obstreperous cases, takes as little trouble as possible for himself, and makes as much as he can for his native help, domineering over them to his heart's content. The missionary's life is full of care and trying labors, rarely going to law, suffering wrong for Christ's sake, yielding, pleading, arbitrating, and constantly patching up difficulties between others. All of this works powerfully on a sensitive, nervous system, and adds to the forces that weaken.

Do you wonder, then, that we hail with joy the new acquisition of three workers to this field in a few weeks? Already the work has grown lighter at the knowledge that they are coming. That means a division of labor; that means more rest; that means a bit more of our old home life, with its social side at its best; that means increased facilities for spreading out our work.

Dr. Day early learned that if he would be successful in this field he must first live and then work, so he laid his plans for living first and working afterward. He built a good strong house, planted a garden, cleared a large tract of ground, ordered provisions from America and Europe—the best he could buy—wore underclothing adapted to the climate, kept house best conducive to health, and used all the sense and cents God and his church gave him. Others associated in the work with him might easily have lived longer had they more closely copied his pattern. Surrounding himself with literature, a comfortable home, as many visitors as he found opportunity of inviting, working hard, but carefully, he was able to rear the monument that lives in humanity along the coast.

The climatic bugaboo does not scare one after reaching the field. It is only at a distance that it is disenchanting. For the deaths from overwork the church is largely responsible. More workers would cost less in the long run. We are truly glad that our good church at home has sent out additional reinforcements, for that means a new lease of life to us. No station here, however, will be adequately manned until it is doubly manned, for only then will the general health be better, the work more endurable, and the cause advanced. May the church soon realize this important fact.—*A. Pohlmann, Muhlenburg Mission, April 13, 1898.*

The Situation at Sierra Leone.—The latest accounts from Sierra Leone show that the situation in that colony growing out of the enforcement of the hut-tax ordinance in the Protectorate has developed into a very grave one. The opposition of the natives has assumed a hostile form and war is being waged in certain districts, attended with a considerable loss of life, while the whole country is represented to be in a state of ferment, all trade being stopped and much distress prevailing in consequence. The wisdom of the policy which has succeeded in producing such a deplorable state of things is not only open to doubt, but in the face

of a similar enactment being made to work successfully in the Gambia, would seem to point to administrative blundering of rather a gross kind. Under the stress of a decreasing trade and diminishing revenue, the government of Sierra Leone, as also that of the Gambia, have been put to the necessity of resorting to various means for replenishing their diminishing exchequers and have hit upon the device of imposing a tax on native huts in the Protectorate. In the Sierra Leone Protectorate the number of these native huts is estimated to be 181,000, and they have been rated at five shillings each, while at the Gambia the tax has been assessed at a shilling on each hut. The hut itself consists of a small, one-roomed, conical-shaped thatch building, about fifty feet in circumference, constructed principally of bamboo or other light material, with a place of ingress and exit, the whole structure not being worth five shillings. It is these primitive habitations which the governments of Sierra Leone and the Gambia have hit upon as a proper object for taxation in order to supplement their revenues. The natives, who have no idea of a system of direct taxation, evinced, as might have been expected, opposition to a scheme which with them implied that the government had taken possession of their lands and dwellings, and that they were no longer owners but tenants of their primitive homes. In the case of the Gambia, however, the rate being only a shilling per hut, the opposition was not so strong, the people no doubt concluding that it would be better to pay the one shilling than incur the trouble which a refusal on their part might involve.

At Sierra Leone the case was different, the assessed rate of tax being not only out of all proportion to the value of the hut, but beyond the means of the majority of the people to meet; for it should not be forgotten that the effect of British rule in the Protectorate has been to dislocate the slave labor system and which has operated to reduce the people to a degree of indigence which it is impossible for those unacquainted with the domestic economy of the country to realize; and it was no doubt with the object of pressing these urgent considerations upon Governor Cardew that the native chiefs of the Protectorate, when invited to the jubilee durbar in Freetown, deferred their return home until the governor had arrived from England and they had had the opportunity of an interview with him, and for which purpose they remained in Freetown several months after the jubilee, at considerable expense to themselves. It is said that they were not successful in inducing the governor to make any modification of his taxation scheme, but the fact of their having entered a protest against what they deemed an oppressive measure, and for which their peculiar circumstances offered some justification, showed that they were not actuated by any spirit of willful contrariety or disloyalty, but were rather anxious to have matters adjusted in a way which would render it more feasible for their people to comply with the demands of the government. Unfortunately the view obtains very largely with the governing officials that increase of revenue denotes progress, and so they

would allow no consideration to stand in the way of taxation schemes which effect the double purpose of securing a larger revenue while they also give the impression that the colony which is made the victim of such schemes is prosperous and progressive. They forget that increased revenue, as has been recently pointed out by Mr. John Holt, of Liverpool, does not necessarily imply progress. It may also imply excessive taxation and, as a consequence, the embarrassment and impoverishment of the people, as has evidently been the case at Sierra Leone.

The unreasonableness of a tax assessment which is equivalent to the value of the property taxed must suggest itself to the most prejudiced mind, yet it appears that this aspect of the matter did not present itself to the authorities of Sierra Leone, who were intent only on the attainment of their object, notwithstanding that the particularly unfortunate circumstances of the people should have invited special consideration in their behalf, and more especially since it was known that the system of taxation as that sought to be imposed was distasteful to even civilized people and must prove obnoxious to the native if it were made to assume an aggravated form. The sequel has shown that government implies something more than harvesting a revenue, and no matter how much we may regret the apparent want of loyalty to the government on the part of the natives, we cannot resist the conviction that they have been goaded to desperation by an ill-advised policy of imperiousness, and which was lacking of any sympathy and consideration for them. Governor Cardew is alleged to have asserted in support of the tax ordinance that "the taxation imposed on the inhabitants is extremely light when compared with the amount communities elsewhere have to contribute toward their governments." We do not think the governor could adduce an instance among civilized communities in which the rate of taxation bears the same proportion to the value of property taxed as does the Sierra Leone hut tax. Besides, between the position of the native of the Protectorate and a citizen or subject of a civilized community there is no parallel. In the case of the latter the revenue is employed almost entirely for his behoof and benefit, either in the way of promoting his safety, comfort, and welfare generally, or, what is better still, in fostering and promoting industries through which he may obtain a livelihood. In the case of the Protectorate native, the government, it is true, maintains peace and order as between tribe and tribe, but this is effected by means of a military system which is only little less afflictive to him than were the former wars and raids of his own people.

Apart from this qualified advantage, the Protectorate native derives no benefit from the revenue harvested from him, since no part of it is applied, as it should be, in promoting the development of new industries in the country, and thus contributing to its real progress and the welfare of the native. It is this mistaken notion, that the systems and methods of Europe are adapted to the African, and the attempt to apply them which accounts for a good deal of administrative blundering, and the

effect of which has been inimical to the progress of the West African colonies as a whole. These systems have been evolved gradually as circumstances and the needs of the people of Europe demanded, and it is by the same gradual process that they will, if ever, acquire a permanent and effective hold with the African; and it is obvious that if the idea of the "development" of these colonies is to take a practical form superstitions of this kind will have to be abandoned and their governments directed, not for the purpose of harvesting a large revenue, to be expended upon an unnecessarily elaborate civil machinery, but in an earnest and definite effort to augment the commercial resources of the colonies by opening up new industries and furthering local enterprise and development in every possible way. The deplorable results of the ill-advised policy pursued at Sierra Leone show the far-reaching effects which a wrong or injudicious step may lead to and how nearly it may imperil the whole well-being of the colony administered. A large sacrifice of life, the destruction of towns, villages, and agricultural crops, the complete paralyzation of trade, and a large expenditure of money, with an infinite amount of misery and distress, and general unsettlement of the country form the sequel of an ill-judged policy, rashly inaugurated and enforced, and the injudiciousness of which ought to have been apparent if it had been given the consideration which it deserved. We understand that there is some prospect of things quieting down; we hope this is so, but it will take a long time before the colony recovers from the effects of Governor Cardew's experiment of administration on wild and impracticable imperialistic notions, and it is to be hoped that the dire lessons of the experiment will not be lost upon him and his colleagues in other colonies.—*The Lagos Weekly Record.*

Liberia.—"I was pleased to find Liberia a fine country with a most fertile soil. It is often a question in America why a minister is usually selected to be sent as diplomatic and consular representative to this country. Since reaching here I learn that it was the efforts of Rev. Paul Cuffey that caused the Liberian colony to be settled here; and he, in his religious teachings, laid the foundation for a strong religious tendency, the fruits of which are still very visible in the National Government of Liberia. I find the people of Monrovia to be a church-going and Sabbath-observing people indeed. No vessel, however important, is allowed to load or unload in a Liberian port on Sunday. Intellectually, I have found the official and aristocratic circles to be a very cultured and intelligent people. Dwellings in Monrovia are well proportioned, built principally of brown granite and bricks, from two to four stories high and containing from six to fourteen rooms. The climate is very warm to one coming from a cooler atmosphere. The rainy season, which is now, is their coldest weather. It is about like our September. To me the sun rises in the west and sets in the east."—*Rev. Owen L. W. Smith, U. S. Minister to Liberia.*

"The Cape Palmas Reporter" is the name of a new quarterly publication issued from Cape Palmas, Liberia. Volume 1, No. 1, June, 1898, has the following "contents":

Editorials.—President Coleman's visit to Cavalla; on the development of Liberia's resources.

Religious.—Proselytism in Christian bodies; Rev. W. C. Cummings.

Poetical expressions.—Cape Palmas hymns; National hymn. Judge R. H. Gibson.

Political.—Liberia and the press; Leicester. Statistics of African produce exported.

Miscellaneous.—City elections; Woman's auxiliary; Court of Half Cavalla; Wreck of S. S. *Lothar Bohlen;* Grebo proverbs; list of county officers; May session court of qr. sess. and com. pleas, Md. Co.

The proprietors of the journal are James H. Dennis, James J. Dossen, and S. D. Ferguson, Jr., and the price is $1.50 per year; single copy, 40 cents.

The Cape Palmas Reporter may be obtained by addressing either of the proprietors and enclosing the price specified above.

The Commercial Value of Africa.—Central or Tropical Africa, extending from the Zambesi to the bend of the Niger, or, roughly, between 18 degrees south and 18 degrees north latitude, consists roughly of seven million square miles—double the size of Europe or of Canada or of Australia. England's share of the spoils in Central Africa may be roughly estimated at 2,000,000 square miles. The trade of this enormous area may be approximately valued at the present time as follows:

Territory.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
West African colonies	£2,000,000	£2,000,000	£4,000,000
Niger territories	450,000	500,000	950,000
Niger Coast Protectorate	900,000	850,000	1,750,000
British Central Africa	40,000	45,000	85,000
British East Africa	80,000	100,000	180,000
Zanzibar	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000
Somaliland	250,000	220,000	470,000
	£4,720,000	£4,715,000	£9,435,00

This is considerably less than the total trade of Ceylon and about five millions less than the exports from Cape Colony.

The total area of French Central Africa, including all that France claims, may be estimated roughly at a million square miles. From this, of course, we exclude the bulk of the Sahara, the Mediterranean States, Madagascar, and other isles, which would add at least another million and a half of square miles. The trade statistics are still more uncertain

than those of British Africa, and are generally behind date. Taking the latest official figures, we find the following results:

Territory.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
Senegal	£450,000	£800,000	£1,250,000
Ivory Coast	150,000	80,000	230,000
Dahomey	350,000	420,000	770,000
Congo and Gaboon	100,000	100,000	200,000
	£1,050,000	£1,400,000	£2,450,000

While the bulk of the trade of British Africa is with the mother country, about one-half of the trade of French Tropical Africa is with foreign countries. The imports from France amount to less than those from other quarters.

Turning now to German Africa, we find a total area, excluding German Southwest Africa, of about 550,000 square miles. The commercial statistics are as follows:

Territory.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
Togoland	£180,000	£150,000	£330,000
Cameroons	250,000	230,000	480,000
German East Africa	280,000	400,000	680,000
	£710,000	£780,000	£1,490,000

Considering that Germany has been at work in Africa for little more than ten years, the results compare favorably with those achieved either in the British or in the French territories. At the same time, the great bulk of the trade, in German East Africa at least, is carried on with other countries than Germany.

Portugal may be regarded as the oldest European power in Africa, and her territories include some 750,000 square miles. So far as can be made out, the trade may be given as follows:

Territory.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
Angola	£800,000	£650,000	£1,450,000
Guinea	11,000	22,000	33,000
East Africa	250,000	550,000	800,000
	£1,061,000	£1,222,000	£2,283,000

Could we add to this the trade of the African islands belonging to Portugal, the total amount would be enhanced by about half a million sterling. It is difficult to form an estimate of the trade of Italian Africa. If we set it down at half a million sterling we cannot be accused of illiberality. As to the Congo Free State, its area may be taken roughly at a million square miles. The exports may be taken at £300,000 and the total imports at £400,000. Liberia's exports and imports combined probably do not exceed £500,000 annually. We collect our statistics in the following general table:

Territory.	Total exports.	Total imports.	Grand total.
British sphere	£4,720,000	£4,715,000	£9,435,000
French sphere	1,050,000	1,400,000	2,450,000
German sphere	710,000	780,000	1,490,000
Portuguese sphere	1,061,000	1,222,000	2,283,000
Italian sphere	.....	.....	500,000
Congo Free State	300,000	400,000	700,000
Liberia	.....	.....	500,000
	£7,841,000	£8,517,000	£17,358,000

It is probable that the total white population in the whole of Central Africa, inclusive of officials, missionaries, traders, and others, does not exceed 6,000. Again, of the total exports all but an insignificant fraction are jungle products, such as palm oil, palm kernel, ground nuts, ivory, caoutchouc, gums, and similar articles, for which there is naturally only a limited demand, and of which plentiful supplies are obtained from other parts of the world. Central Africa is as capable of producing coffee, cotton, sugar, tea, tobacco, cereals of all kinds, and cattle as any other region on the face of the earth; but in order that its capabilities may be developed an adequate white population is absolutely necessary. There are regions in all parts of Central Africa which, if colonizable by northern Europeans, are suitable for prolonged residence. Blantyre, to the south of Lake Nyassa, has for years maintained a considerable population of English origin, who, with ordinary care, can live there for years in health. In Portuguese West Africa, where the edge of the plateau comes well down to the coast, not only have Portuguese lived for generations, but on the southern section a flourishing Boer settlement has been established for years; and flourishing plantations of coffee, cocoa, sugar, and other products have been established in this territory. There can be no doubt that, instead of 6,000, a hundred times that number of Europeans could manage to lead a healthy and vigorous life in Central Africa, and we may be assured that if it paid, there would be no lack of settlers. The conclusion to be drawn is that it would be wrong to take the present contempt-

ible trade of Central Africa as a test of its capabilities. In the meantime it is for the powers, who have hastily snatched enormous portions of this long-neglected continent, to consider what had best be done with them. It is possible that considerable readjustments might be for the profit and peace of all concerned. Some portions it would be folly for England to part with, while other portions might be best used as counters for advantages to be obtained elsewhere.

South of the Zambesi we have an area of some 1,300,000 square miles, including German Southwest Africa, with a population of about 800,000 whites, rapidly increasing. The total commerce may be estimated at £35,000,000, almost equally divided between exports and imports. The bulk of this commerce belongs, of course, to the Cape Colony, the share of Natal being about £4,500,000. The total trade of the Orange Free State is probably about £3,000,000.

As to the South African Republic, there are no returns for exports, while the imports on which duty is paid are valued officially at about five millions sterling. Of course, inclusive of gold, the exports must be very considerable, but in the case of both of the Boer States the trade returns are stated to be included to a large extent in those of the Cape and Natal. The gold output of the Transvaal approaches eight millions sterling, and about seven millions of this is included in the exports of Cape Colony. For German Southwest Africa it is difficult to estimate the value of the trade, as so much is carried on by the land frontier, but it is doubtful if it exceeds £70,000. At present, of course, the trade of the British South African Company's territories is insignificant, as is also that of Bechuanaland. We are liberal when we say that the area over which the trade of South Africa is spread is not more than one-seventh of the total area of Central Africa. At present gold and diamonds form in value a large proportion of the exports, and they have a limited demand. So far as the development of a new region is concerned, their great value is in attracting a numerous and vigorous population. This has been the case in Australia and California, in both of which gold has given impetus to immigration.

In North Africa we find a people fairly high in the scale of civilization, industrious tillers of the soil, rearers of cattle, skilled in manufactures of a simple kind, keen traders, and with many wants which Europe can supply. The total population of the North African States is somewhere about 17,000,000, and of this probably not more than 400,000 can be reckoned as "white." The combined trade of Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco amounts to somewhere about forty-six millions sterling annually, fairly divided between imports and exports. The total area included in these States is 1,250,000 square miles, about the same as South Africa; but of this a large extent is totally unproductive. In Egypt alone, with its 400,000 square miles, all the produce is yielded by only about 13,000. In all the other States there are great desert tracts. Of

the total commerce of North Africa, Egypt claims about one-half and Algeria about twenty millions sterling.

When every allowance is made for the great desert wedges that mar these Mediterranean countries, they are capable of being developed far beyond their present yield. At the same time they can never become the home of the European laborer, at least of the native of central and northern Europe.

Reckoning up, then, the value of the total commerce of Africa, we cannot put it at more than 100 millions sterling, a miserable yield for 11 millions square miles. South America alone carries on a commerce valued at 160 millions for an area of seven million square miles, and even there much of the continent has only been scratched. What can be made of a tropical country with large desert areas, but with a teeming, industrious native population, under the guidance of Europeans, with a network of railways, with extended system of irrigation, a stable government, and other advantages lacking in Africa, may be seen in the case of India, the commerce of which is more valuable than that of all Africa, though the total area is only 1½ million square miles; but in this area lives and works a population double that of the whole of Africa.

The fact is, that up to within the past few years Africa has hardly been needed by the rest of the world, except as a slave market; but her turn has come, and the need for her coöperation in the general economy of the world will become greater and greater as population increases, as industry expands, as commerce develops, as states grow ambitious, as civilization spreads.—*London Times.*

The Negro Future.—Reading the accounts now appearing of Miss Kingsley's adventures in the Cameroons, the question which all African narratives suggest comes again into the mind, What makes the African continent so bad? Her people are not all bad, for Miss Kingsley's elephant-hunters stuck to her under circumstances of unusual horror and danger; but still the total impression of her story, as of nearly all African stories, is that of a people abnormally low, evil, cruel. There is no corner of Europe, Asia, or America where that tale of the villages in which human limbs were regularly exposed for sale as meat would not produce a shudder of horror, and so far as geographers know, there never has been one. Even in Mexico, though the religious rites were murderous and cruel past belief, this crowning horror was absent, and in Polynesia cannibalism, though frightfully prevalent, assumed a different form. It was always a rite or an orgie, never a practice placed on a level with other practices, or treated as one of the ordinary devices for the supply of food. We only hear of that among the Niam Niam of the upper Congo or among the Fangwe of the Cameroons, or, if the tale be true, which is possibly false, among those villages of Hayti in which voodooism has become a general instead of a secret creed. It is in Africa that the lowest depth of evil barbarism is reached, and that we find the races with the

least of humanity about them except the form. They are not all cannibals, or even all cruel, but they are all degraded. Speaking broadly, we find throughout Africa, everywhere in that endless territory, under all varieties of climate and soil and circumstances, races which are lower and worse than the races of Asia, with baser ideas and more evil habits, and less power of rising out of them to a more civilized or nobler life. The wild nomads of Tartary, who do not even grow corn, are gentlemen compared with most Negro tribes, while the oppressed natives of the deltas of southern Asia are statesmen in their comparative power of organizing communities.

The highest ideal to which the black African community has risen is that of the trading village or the stationary camp, in which for a few years some chieftain has succeeded in maintaining by bloodthirsty cruelties a semblance of obedience and order. Moreover, it has always been so. We know that the Negroes were there three thousand years ago at least, and in all that long period they have founded no empire, built no city, developed no art—that is, have stayed far behind the aboriginal Americans, who, like the Negroes, had no known contact with races other than their own. The blacks have never evolved a great tribe or a great man—Chaka, who was a fiendish brute as well as a ruler, being the nearest approach to one—or a legislator, or a builder, or a promulgator of a creed. They have everywhere in all ages remained at once degraded and bad, and the puzzle to be explained is, Why? It is equally a puzzle to the Christian and the materialist; for while the former is lost in wonder that so large a section of humanity should seem to be God-abandoned, the latter fails to reconcile Negro history with any of his theories. There is no reason whatever in the circumstances of Africa why her people should not have risen to the Asiatic level, have covered her broad plateaus with tents like the Tartars, or felled the forests which spread over her delta, and built, with stone and clay and wood, cities like those of China or Bengal. There is nothing on the Ganges, except men, which there is not on the Congo or the Niger. The climate of Ashantee is not worse than that of Siam, while many an African delta is as full of fertile soil as Bengal or Southern China. The black people, moreover, labor under no natural disqualification. They are distinctly more powerful than average Asiatics, they are brave, and they are singularly little affected by malarial disease. They have none of the Polynesian liability to die out; nor have they been kept back by that absolute incapacity to take the first steps out of purely animal life which we found among the Tasmanians and some other of the Australian tribes, and in the Andamanese and the Veddahs of Ceylon. They all know the use of fire, they all can build huts, they all grow corn of some sort, they nearly all can smelt metals, and they all have learned how to make and how to use the bow, the hatchet, and the hoe. Why, then, have they never risen, never developed a civilization, never learned that permanent obedience to a code which enables men to aggregate themselves into

mighty, and up to a certain point improving, communities? Why—for this appears to be the truth—has their point of arrest arrived so quickly that they have been unable to remain at it, and have time after time fallen back into the jungle life, have apparently "gone Fantee," as the whites of the West Coast phrase it, in huge masses? It is the inexplicable mystery of history, and is not solved in the least by talking of deficient brain-power; for if there is one thing clear about Negroes it is that there are individuals among them with plenty of brain-force, who can learn the difficult trades, or acquire the abstract ideas of the whites, or even master their sciences, like medicine or mathematics. The Polynesian "gives out" when his brain is overtaxed; but the Negro, if he will allow his brain to be taxed at all, does not give out. There are pure Negroes in the West Indies who are as able as Europeans; and no one who ever spoke to Bishop Crowther or Mr. Blyden would assert that he could detect any quality of intellect in them differentiating them in any way from the white man, or the brown or yellow man, of the higher type. What, then, is lacking to be supplied before reasonable men can say that before Negroes also, as before Europeans, there stretches a limitless future, and that their present taint, an apparently irredeemable proclivity to barbarism, even when they have been temporarily carried out of it, has finally disappeared? The something must exist, because individuals have obtained it, and have risen at least to the Asiatic level, if not beyond; but what is it?

It is a problem which Europeans must study, and must solve, too, if they are to govern the vast continent in peace and security, and without those bursts of savage and demoralizing severity by which at present—let us not blind ourselves to the fact—their authority is everywhere in Africa still maintained. We confess, without shame, that the study of years has given us no light upon this subject, that we see only two grounds of hope, and that both are diminished by one ground for a pessimistic conclusion. The first, perhaps the best ground of hope—certainly the one at which philanthropic Europeans will leap—is that the influence of a higher race has never yet been fairly tried. The Egyptian, the Greek, the Roman, the Frenchman, the Portuguese, and the Englishman have all tried to discipline the Negro into a higher man, and have all in the main failed; but they have none of them tried fairly. They have made him a slave instead of treating him as a child, to be turned into a man. No one of the higher races has tried steady and kindly rule for a hundred years, such as has repeatedly helped to civilize both the white and the dark man. We are not trying it even now, for in our recoil from our old diabolical severity we have set the Negro too free, and instead of replacing the regime of will by the regime of vivifying law from above, as we ought to have done, we have granted the self-government for which as yet the race is not prepared. It is the Paraguayan experiment, not the Liberian, which ought to have been tried, and it may be tried yet with unexpected results. We can conceive of three generations of a

government like that of the Jesuits in Paraguay—that is, of a government using absolute supremacy with a single eye to education, gradually annealing the Negro mind until the child-element disappears from it and he becomes a man, even if he remains for ten generations more a rather inferior one. It is freedom from childlike submission to impulse that the Negro wants first of all. The second ground of hope is that the annealing quality may be found in a creed which takes a hold on him—not necessarily Christianity, but any strong and reasonable creed. The testimony of all observers is that the Negro who becomes in sincerity either a Christian or a Mohammedan becomes to an immense extent a different being, accepts a sovereign law, and ceases to be a child. Neither Uncle Tom nor the Hausa of the West is like the typical Negro. We should ourselves think that Buddism, which is entering Africa with the Indian immigration via Zanzibar, would suit him best; but there is always the possibility that some creed may catch on and produce, perhaps as slowly as Christianity did in Europe, a marvelous and a permanent change. Creeds, if once genuinely adopted, solidify men's minds, even atheism of the thorough type changing the Southern Frenchman into something very different from, and much harder than, the average Provençal; and yet, as we have said, one pessimistic thought will intrude. The object of the existence of the Negro may not be the object we all assume. We know nothing of the Divine purpose, and we have before us, in Australia, one visible proof that it is not always what we are pleased to call progress. There, in a beautiful climate and amid glorious scenes, a Negrito race lived on for at least four thousand years—the banks of clamshells tell us that—and then disappeared, naked, uncivilized, ignorant of fire, without an idea higher than the search for food. They had accomplished nothing, they had in no way prepared Australia for a higher race, and they have passed or are passing wholly away. The Australian of the future will hardly believe in them any more than we believe in the Euskari or in Neolithic men. The destiny of the Negro may be of that kind, and the Negro races may be forever useless in our eyes, as were the worms in those of Darwin's garden.—*The London Spectator.*

It was militia parade day in Monrovia, and as I passed through the public square several hundred black militiamen, in appropriate uniform, were parading under command of Colonel James B. Dennis. During the past year I have seen, in different parts of the continent, black soldiers under command of English, German, Portuguese, French, Dutch, and Belgian officers, but now for the first time saw them in Africa officered by men from their own ranks. It was a pleasing sight to me. If Liberian nationality is to be maintained and the Republic be a permanent and potent influence, her young men must be trained in sentiments of patriotic loyalty to their country, both for its own development and for holding in respectful obedience and, if need be, enforcing authority

among the million and more of barbarous natives in its domain and which outnumber the English-speaking Liberians forty to one. Outside of this one little Republic on the west coast, in all Africa the black man is soldier and burden-bearer for people of other races, even to the Malay and the Indian. On him these other races are dependent for every shipload of merchandise received from or deposited on the shores of the continent; for the labor that works the mines, whether diamond, gold, iron, or coal; that is to develop agriculture, and that builds railroads, whether across the deadly coast line or over the scorching karroo. Here in Liberia alone black men—American Negroes and their descendants—have for fifty years maintained a nationality, and are now bravely facing the future. Who will refuse to give them a word of cheer and, wherever possible, a helping hand?

Last July there came to the Liberian Government a joint memorial from England and the United States, through Lord Salisbury and Secretary Sherman, expressing great interest in the continuance and success of the black Republic. That word came, indeed, as a blast of "good news from a far country." Is this the beginning of anything more? Do those two great nations intend to insure the nationality of this little Republic, and to extend to it such encouragement and practical aid as will help to insure its future growth? I can say advisedly that this is what the Liberians themselves are praying for. They turn especially, with almost filial longing, to the United States, and would joyfully welcome advice and coöperation in the extension of efficient government among the natives, the exploration of its domain, which is known to contain gold, iron, and rubber, possibly diamonds, and enormous possibilities in agriculture. The whole question of emigration of black people from the United States should be under adequate authority, representing both nations, by which imposition would be impossible and only the proper emigrants come, and they only when proper arrangements are made to receive and locate them.—*Bishop J. C. Hartzell.*

Cape Mount, Liberia.—"All the emigrants sent out here by the Society in 1887 are now living comfortably and happy.

"There are thousands of pounds of coffee raised here every year, but the price is very low just at present.

"I think Cape Mount is the best place on the whole west coast of Africa for healthfulness. The country is high and beautiful, the soil is very fertile, and there is an abundance of pure, fresh, running water."
—*W. M. Williams.*

Taxation in British Crown Colonies.—The article which we reproduce from the *Jamaica Advocate*, under the caption "Bricks without Straw," and the one from the *Gold Coast Aborigines*, headed "The House Tax," are both very suggestive as regards the system of government adopted in

British crown colonies. It is made a boast that the system of British colonial rule is successful because it makes the colonies or dependencies pay their own way. This would form a true criterion of successful rule if this "paying their own way" implied the capability of meeting a simple, inexpensive, and economical administrative expenditure adapted to the needs and necessities of the colony or dependency. It means instead, however, the support of a cumbrous and expensive system of government fashioned on the models of Europe and which taxes the resources of the colony and becomes an economic drain upon it. In short, it implies a false financial display at the onset, ultimately involving ruin and bankruptcy to the colony. It is this unwise and extravagant system of government which has involved the West Indian colonies in their present dilemma of having the British tax-payer to come to their relief in order to save them from financial ruin. The same system is operating in India to the impoverishment of a country prolific of resources, but which is now reduced to a condition of acute distress. The newspaper *India*, commenting on the difficulties which surround British rule in India, prefaces its comment with the following grave and impressive statement:

"Among the many difficulties which surround English rule in India, difficulties inherent in all government by aliens, there is one not due to the governed, but to those who hold power—the difficulty of ruling the rulers and of enforcing on the governing race those maxims of toleration, of respect, and of good feeling which persons in authority are so apt to forget; and, like so many of the other dangers that threaten the happiness of India—like the poverty of the people and the economic drain involved in the payments to England—this, as is allowed on all hands, constitutes a growing evil and one that has within the last twenty years reached formidable dimensions."

The difficulty of ruling Governor Cardew has precipitated the Sierra Leone troubles, and the same difficulty threatens to brew troubles on the Gold Coast; and it is the "maxims of toleration, of respect, and of good feeling" which a long European resident in this colony recently so strongly impressed upon his countrymen. But the difficulty with which we are more directly concerned at present is in relation to the financial management of the government. The system of finances is on a plan of extravagance which must inevitably involve disaster. The civil machinery is made unnecessarily ponderous and expensive in order to make room for a large staff of officials who are sustained on the life blood of the colony. The people are burdened with one kind or degree of tax after another until they are ground down to the lowest depths of poverty and destitution, while all the while the official element, elate with the prospects of an increased revenue, are proclaiming progress and prosperity. It is time that British statesmen should consider the wisdom of a policy which ultimately must throw the burden of the support of these dependencies on the imperial government. It is manifestly wisdom to alter a plan of government which the dullest apprehension must see can

only lead to ruin. If the colonies are to have a future, they must be something more than "milch cows," and their government regulated on a sensible and economical basis, directed to ensure their prosperity by increasing their resources. The ruinous system of taxation pursued under the present system of the government of crown colonies is fairly illustrated in this colony. The total resources of the colony, and which consist of the jungle products palm oil, palm kernels, and rubber, amounted in 1897 to £591,381, upon which a revenue was harvested amounting to £177,965; and, notwithstanding that rubber is a fast-diminishing product, it is proposed to harvest a revenue this year of £178,380. Apart from the question of specific duties, it is obvious that taxation must bear some proportion to the resources of a country, and it does not require much acumen to determine the result when over thirty per cent. of a country's resources are absorbed in taxes. And the rule which applies to one applies to the whole, and it is a matter of the gravest concern to the inhabitants of these colonies as to whether a system will be continued which implies for them absolute poverty and ruin in the future.—*The Lagos Weekly Record.*

THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT CHICAGO
3 8198 324 293 636